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ABSTRACT

The main focus of this ESEA Title I program review and forward look is on problem areas the National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children has identified since its first report in 1966, which the Council feels seems to deserve the early attention of a new Administration and Congress. Major recommendations are as follows: (1) Office of Education (OE) should make a special effort to disseminate examples of demonstrably successful compensatory education programs, such as the selection of 21 successful projects described in a special supplement in this report; (2) OE should designate a single visibly placed official to monitor all aspects of Title I participation by nonpublic school children; (3) OE should show state and local personnel the full range of possibilities in using Title I funds for health services; (4) ESEA Title I should be continued substantially as now written; (5) principle of concentrating funds where most needed should be adhered to; (6) the new Administration is urged to offer imaginative leadership in school desegregation and to refuse to back down on this commitment; and, (7) the Executive and Legislative branches should move quickly to close the gap between the Title I appropriation and the authorization of a sum of $2.7 billion. Appended are community case studies of nonpublic school children and Title I. (RJ)

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a review and a forward look - 1969

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FOURTH ANNUAL REPORT

The National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children

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NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL ON THE EDUCATION
OF DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN
1900 E STREET, N. W.
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January 27, 1969

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Sirs:

I am pleased to transmit to you the Annual Report of the National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children. This is the 4th Annual Report, and the 6th Report in all, submitted by the Council since its creation in 1965.

In the present Report, the Council responds to the Congressional request, contained in the 1967 Amendments to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, that successful Title I and other compensatory education programs be identified. In addition, the Council reports here the results of its study of the involvement of nonpublic school children in Title I, and of its study of the impact of Title I on the health needs of disadvantaged children. Finally, inasmuch as this Report is submitted to a new President and a new Congress, the Council has summarized its major continuing concerns about Title I and the education of disadvantaged children in our land.

Respectfully yours,

O. Meredith Wilson
O. Meredith Wilson

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I: TITLE I AND THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL -- A REVIEW AND FORWARD LOOK

In both the financial and political senses, Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965 (ESEA) represents a tiny part of the awesome responsibilities facing the new President and a new Congress. It accounts for only $1 billion of a $185 billion budget, and constitutes only one component of the hundreds of laws which the Administration must supervise.

Comparatively modest as the financing and scope of Title I are, however, we believe that this single piece of legislation overshadows all other federal aid-to-education laws in importance, for it strikes one of the earliest and potentially most effective blows at the self-perpetuating cycle of poverty in the United States: poor family-poor education-poor job-poor family. Last year, it touched the lives of 9 million American children. Thus Title I continues to represent an enormous amount of hope for those of our youngsters who are held back in their learning efforts by poverty and its attendant deprivations -- social, cultural, and physical. As we observed in our first report to the President on March 31, 1966, ". . . unless the children of our land can be freed from the chains of disadvantage which bind them to a life of hopelessness and misery, battles may be won in the War on Poverty, but final defeat will be inevitable."

ESEA was passed on April 11, 1965. Funds were first made available to local school systems on September 23, 1965, after the

1965-66 school year had already begun. Hence this report follows only the second full year of operation of Title I, even though the program is in its fourth fiscal year as the federal government reckons the legislative calendar.

The same law that created Title I created the National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children, directing it to review the administration and operation of Title I "including its effectiveness in improving the educational attainment of educationally deprived children." In our five earlier reports to the President and the Congress, we have attempted to assess -- as private citizens with no personal stake in the law other than social and moral concern -- the impact and deficiencies of Title I as well as those of compensatory education generally. And as a new Administration and a new Congress begin, we believe it important not only to present our latest findings, but also to review some of our continuing concerns about Title I and the factors that prevent it from realizing all the promise its framers envisioned.

Some of our earlier observations about deficiencies in the law or its administration have led to remedial action by the Congress or Executive branch; others still require attention. We summarize those concerns under ten headings -- three having to do with studies recently completed under the auspices of the National Advisory Council, and seven with matters which were raised in the past but continue to concern us now.

Recent Studies

Evaluation

It has long been clear that the mere addition of people, equipment, and special services does not by itself constitute compensatory education; success in making up for the educational deprivation which stems from poverty requires a strategy for blending these resources in an integrated program that strikes at both roots and consequences of disadvantage.

The details of this strategy, however, have by no means been clear. For one thing, we still have not had sufficient experience with Title I, or compensatory education programs generally, to be able to fully and fairly evaluate their potential. For another, the limited evaluations of Title I programs, together with the wide variation in content and quality of data submitted to the Office of Education, have prevented any overall statistical evaluation of the first years of Title I on a nationwide basis. In turn, lack of data that is at once widely comprehensive and genuinely comparable has made identification of the components of successful compensatory programs most difficult.

What is clear is that among the thousands of different programs and approaches labeled as compensatory education, some efforts are paying off and others are not. Some of these programs can be evaluated in terms of positive, easily identifiable changes such as improvement in reading scores; in this report the Council identifies a number of such programs which have been proven successful by such measurements.

Yet reading scores are not the only criteria for measuring the effectiveness of a Title I program. They do not, for example, offer any index to the value of providing a far-sighted child with glasses, or of feeding a hungry child, or of changing a youngster's attitudes toward school from suspicion and hostility to pleasure and interest. It may be, indeed, that favorable attitudes toward schooling constitute much of the "head start" which a youngster from an advantaged home takes to the classroom with him, and which the disadvantaged boy or girl typically lacks.

The Council believes, in sum, that educators must refine their methods of measuring "success" and must at the same time identify, disseminate and replicate programs that have been demonstrated successful by present evaluation techniques. Only in this way can we hope to improve the overall quality of the Title I effort.

This report presents the results of two studies conducted by the American Institutes of Research into a) successful Title I programs, and b) the components that distinguish successful programs from unsuccessful ones.

As a result of these studies the Council recommends that:

1. The U.S. Office of Education should augment its ongoing Title I information process by engaging in a special effort to disseminate examples of demonstrably successful compensatory education programs -- such as those in Part V of this report -- to be used as touchstones for other programs.

2. The Office of Education should explore both administrative and legislative means of rewarding well-designed, successful programs and providing incentives for their expansion and implementation by other schools.

3. The Office of Education and state departments of education should cooperate in establishing Title I spending priorities which reflect examples of proven success or suggested failure.

4. The Office of Education and state departments of education should cooperate in developing criteria for more uniform, comparable evaluation data than are now submitted by local Title I programs so that more informed judgments can be made about which programs are working and which are not.

5. Professional educators and social scientists should intensify review of current achievement tests to further reduce "culturebound" components that are biased against the disadvantaged child and conceal indications of his true, latent ability.

6. These professionals should also move beyond purely cognitive achievements tests and into other realms -- self-concept, creativity, motivation, behavior -- where compensatory education may have equally important long-range results.

Participation of Nonpublic School Children

ESEA requires that compensatory education programs be established for disadvantaged children in nonpublic schools to the extent consistent with the number of such children. There is cause to question whether, in fact, the number of parochial and other nonpublic school children participating in Title I projects is consistent with their number. If not, the next essential question is: why?

The Council has sponsored a detailed study of the participation of nonpublic school children in Title I and reports its findings in Part III of this report. Those findings lead us to these recommendations:

1. The Office of Education should designate a single, visibly placed official to monitor all aspects of Title I participation by nonpublic school children.

2. The state departments of education and affected public and nonpublic school systems should also designate a person with the time and resources to oversee the participation of nonpublic school schildren in local Title I programs and to provide liaison between public and nonpublic school officials.

3. The Office of Education should continue to urge the involvement of nonpublic school officials in the planning and evaluation of local Title I programs.

4. The U.S Office of Education should publish in one document all the regulations concerning the participation of nonpublic school children in Title I programs and should disseminate this document to local Title I coordinators in addition to state education officials.

5. Model program examples of successful participation of nonpublic school pupils should be widely disseminated.

6. The Office of Education should review the methods for identifying eligible children and for establishing project areas to prevent the disproportionate exclusion of disadvantaged, nonpublic school children whose attendance-zones do not coincide with those used by public schools.

7. Where services to children justify it, there should be an increase in shared time programs.

Health Services

The provisions of Title I were purposely broad, allowing local education officials to use Federal funds for virtually any service that would reduce disadvantage. Where health needs are not otherwise being fully met, and where educators realize the crucial connection between good health and ability to learn, Title I funds have played an increasingly important role. Today they provide disadvantaged children valuable health services such as physical checkups, nutritional programs, the provision of eyeglasses, and even major medical and dental care; a Council study of 60 Title I programs suggests that, in contrast with a much smaller percentage in the first year of the program, 80 percent of local projects now include a health component. Generally, health services account for 5 to 20 percent of local Title I expenditures. Title I has especially helped to meet the need for early detection of health defects, and to a lesser extent has helped to provide correction of such defects. In some instances, Title I has given children from poor families medical or dental treatment for the first time in their lives.

The Council can but endorse this use of Title I funds. Still, because Title I funds are so limited the Council feels it important for local officials to develop a keen sense of priorities in allocating funds designed primarily for educational purposes.

Our detailed views on health expenditures are expressed in Part IV of this report; at this point, we summarize our recommendations:

1. The Office of Education should call the attention of state and local Title I personnel to the full range of possibilities for using Title I funds to diagnose and treat health disorders.

2. Meanwhile, Title I planners at the state and local levels should be encouraged to investigate the availability of health services from sources other than Title I, so that the provision of necessary health services for disadvantaged children will not unnecessarily diminish the already slender resources available for compensatory education.

3. Title I planners should focus their funds on those whose needs are greatest.

4. Professionals in health and education including Title I planners, at national, state, and local levels should investigate the use of para-professionals for tasks which, while related to health care, do not require professional qualifications.

Continuing Concerns

Continuation of Title I

One of the issues regularly arising from ESEA has been that of preserving the separate titles in this legislation. Earnest and conscientious arguments have been advanced to support a policy of "bloc" grants to the states, leaving to them all decisions regarding the allocation of these supplementary federal funds.

The Council has considered these arguments carefully over the three years of its existence and has stated its position on this subject in earlier reports. After carefully reexamining the present situation, the Council still believes that the continuing high urgency of devoting "more than equal" attention to the education of disadvantaged children calls for unrelenting and specific investment of federal funds.

In effect, Title I now operates as a kind of "bloc-grant" to the states, with the funds being spent in any way the state approves as long as they are spent on the disadvantaged. But the Council believes that any change that would further shift the responsibility to the states for distributing education funds would -- in many states and possibly in all -- diminish the impact of this necessary investment in the education of disadvantaged children.

The Council's position is not based on preconceived theories but on hard data which show that state distribution of funds rarely, if ever, favors those sections of the state with the greatest concentration and number of educationally deprived children -- the central cities. Despite a declining tax base and a high rate of effort, in 1962 central cities received $40 less in state aid per pupil than their suburbs, even though the suburbs were spending $145 more per pupil than the central cities.[1] More recent data suggest that this trend is continuing. For example, central cities in New York's six metropolitan areas received an average of $100 less per pupil in state aid during 1966-67 than did the county or counties in each area.

It is possible that at some time in the future, federal funds for elementary and secondary education will be sufficient to support a wider range of efforts, aimed at more varied needs. For the present, however, the Council believes that Title I funds are now aimed at the single, highest priority educational target -- concentrations of disadvantaged children -- and that it would be unwise to permit any diminution of effort through the relaxation of Congressional direction.

The Council recommends, therefore, that Title I of ESEA be continued substantially as now written.

Level of Funding

The Council is distressed at what appears to be a weakening federal commitment to the education of disadvantaged children. This is best evidenced by the $68 million cutback in funding of Title I from $1.191 billion last school year to $1.123 billion this school year. This cutback, combined with the continuing increase in the cost of education, results in an estimated $400 million less for disadvantaged pupils in local schools this year than was available in the first year of the program.

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[1] Carnegie Quarterly, Vol. XIV, No. 4, Fall, 1966.

We are deluding ourselves if we think we can make an impact on education of the disadvantaged without providing the necessary resources. To meet rising school costs by decreasing Title I appropriations speaks poorly for a nation which has generally prided itself on the quality of its schools and has specifically promised to rescue the unfortunate few whom traditional education and present educational resources have failed to propel into America's mainstream.

A noted educator's recent statement of the issue coincides with, and cogently summarizes the Council's view:

> It may be argued that simply more resources will not solve the educational problems . . . . There is much uncertainty about how educational disadvantage can be overcome. One thing, however, is clear. It cannot be done cheaply. . . . To substitute educational experimentation and innovation for increased resources is to sentence those experiments and innovations to failure.[2]

The Council, therefore, recommends that the Executive and Legislative branches move as quickly as possible to close the gap between the Title I appropriation and the authorization of $2.7 billion.

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[2] Alan K. Campbell, "Matching Resources To Need," a paper presented at the Semiannual Meeting at the Committee for Economic Development, Nov. 14, 1968, p. 13.

Continuity of Effort

Like the other parts of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title I has been almost continually before the Congress for refinement and renewal. Uncertainty about the program and its funding has hurt the effectiveness of Title I, especially since the first two appropriations came after the school year had already begun, and school administrators had already assigned their personnel to other duties. Doubt about the continuing availability of funds inevitably results in a lower-grade staff for Title I projects (some administrators have declared that they would not assign their best teachers to "a program that may go bust any time"), a preponderance of single-purpose programs not integrated with the regular school curriculum, and a minimum of basic changes or improvements in the total curriculum for disadvantaged children.

We observe that the Morrill Land-Grant Act has been in operation for 106 years, and that state universities have received annual appropriations under it ever since. That Act was the result of a great national need; the needs reflected in Title I are certainly as pressing and possibly more basic than those of our higher educational institutions. We must have the courage to recognize that a successful attack on poverty through improving the education of poor children will be measured in decades, not Congressional sessions.

Because of the damage done Title I by annual uncertainty among school officials, we recommend consideration of long-term legislative authority so that educators can plan for the unremitting effort that Title I must receive if it is to fully succeed.

Quality Control and Local Control

Though funded by the federal government, Title I projects are designed by local school systems and approved by state departments of education. It is not the prerogative of the U.S. Office of Education to pass on each project.

Title I is, as the Council has often noted, a highly decentralized program; thus it is not surprising that the educational value of Title I projects differs widely. Some are imaginative, well thought-out, and demonstrably successful; other projects exemplify a tendency simply to do more of the same, to enlarge equipment inventories or reduce class size by insignificant numbers. In the face of such varying results, the U.S. Office of Education -- recognizing the importance of respecting local autonomy and leaving final approval to the states -- has found no way except through the issuance of basic criteria and through exhortation to try to ensure sound projects or to secure revision of projects of low quality. Unhappily, even the basic federal criteria are sometimes misperceived or ignored at the state and local level.

The members of the Council do not in the least question the principle of local control; they believe, moreover, that the freedom for initiative given local school districts by Title I is a powerful force for improving education through programs tailored to the individual needs of individual communities. The American taxpayers, however, have a right to demand that the revenues they provide are spent wisely, and American children have a right in social justice to the maximum benefit available to them from limited funds.

Hence the Council recommends 1) that the U.S. Office of Education fully utilize its existing authority to establish basic criteria for ensuring high quality programs; 2) that USOE work with the state departments of education to improve the monitoring of programs and ensure, by withholding funds if necessary, that the basic criteria are being followed at the local level; and 3) that the legislation be examined to see whether amendments are required to strengthen the basic criteria authority.

Diffusion vs. Concentration

Disadvantaged children invariably suffer from a number of forms of deprivation, not just one; they do not need new textbooks *or* medical care *or* adequate nutrition *or* a reduction in class size, but *all these and other educational remedies together*. Success with these children, in sum, requires *a concentration of services on a limited number of children*.

Owing partly to political pressure and partly to a normal human desire to do *something* for as many children as possible, many school administrators have spread their limited funds over very large groups; the average Title I expenditure per child during 1965-66 and 1966-67 was $96 and $99 respectively -- hardly enough to make a significant difference. In consequence, while the young beneficiaries might have a hot lunch for the first time, all their other handicaps go untouched, and Title I funds -- while spent for entirely worthy purposes -- have simply failed to achieve the overall purpose of the legislation.

The Council again calls for adherence to the principle of concentrating funds where the need is greatest so that a limited number of dollars can have genuine impact rather than being dissipated in laudable but inconclusive efforts.

We further recommend that the Office of Education assist the states in gaining compliance from local school districts with the regulations and guidelines on concentration of resources.

Parental and Community Involvement

No school or program can by itself hope to overcome the manifold effects of disadvantage. A youngster spends at most six hours a day in school; the rest of his waking hours are learning hours, too, and compensatory education cannot outweigh the influences of the home and the neighborhood on a child.

This means that if Title I is to be successful, it must be part of an alliance between parents, community residents, and educators. Parents must understand what the school is trying to achieve, so that they can extend the effects of compensatory education by encouraging learning at home. Other local adults can frequently supplement project funds with their own resources of interest, inventiveness, and special ability. Parental and community involvement represent a way of harnessing the voluntary spirit --

which has always been a remarkable feature of American life -- to expand the benefits of limited Title I funds.

We commend the Office of Education's recently issued policy guidelines suggesting the establishment of local advisory committees to enable parents and other citizens of the local community to become involved in the planning, operation, and appraisal of compensatory education programs. We further urge state education agencies to encourage and assist local school districts in implementing the principle of parent and community involvement in Title I programs.

Compensation and Desegregation

In various sections of the country, the Council has noted a tendency by some school administrators to view Title I as an alternative to school desegregation. This tendency is not always motivated by racial bias or bad faith, but may result from genuine puzzlement; as the Council noted in its 1968 annual report, "the obstacles to desegregation have been so discouraging that some community leaders are now coming to rely almost solely on compensatory education to save the educational lives of children in impoverished ghettoes."

The "obstacles to desegregation" remain as discouraging today as they were 12 months ago, and we can offer no quick solutions to a problem which has baffled wiser men. Indeed, as with many difficult tasks facing the nation, we might well abandon any search for quick solutions and simply accept the fact that desegregating our society will be a tedious, painful, and most demanding job for at least a decade to come.

But with specific reference to the schools, we can only state again that school desegregation appears to have a genuine educational value of its own by giving disadvantaged, minority children the benefit of intellectual and social stimulation from more fortunate classmates. Though not conclusive, the evidence we have -- particularly the massive Equality of Educational Opportunity survey, popularly called "The Coleman Report" -- indicates that a proper degree of school integration aids the learning of socioeconomically deprived children without diminishing the achievement of socioeconomically advantaged children.

The Council recognizes the complexity of the task, including the difficulties in various localities of carrying out the Supreme Court's mandate to desegregate the schools. We believe that solid progress toward a just society was made by the outgoing Administration and recognize that this progress was achieved only at the expense of social conflict and national anguish. We can only urge the new Administration to offer, on the one hand, a fresh, imaginative leadership in school desegreation and, on the other, to refuse to back down on this nation's sometimes agonizing but ever-necessary commitment to equality of opportunity.

In particular, we reiterate our conviction that school desegregation and compensatory education are not an either-or proposition, but are mutually complementary actions which can lose much of their effectiveness in isolation from each other. And this, in turn, leads to our single program recommendation:

That federal, state and local officials exercise their responsibility to prevent Title I from being used as a negative incentive -- one that prolongs segregation -- by ensuring that disadvantaged children retain their Title I benefits when transferred to schools whose student populations consist of socioeconomically advantaged children.

Conclusion

These ten topics do not complete the list of problems which the Council has identified since its first report was issued in March 1966. Many other matters -- early childhood education, for example, and summer programs -- are of great importance to the success of Title I. The subjects outlined above, however, seem to us to deserve the early attention of a new Administration and a new Congress as they review accomplishments and needs, and move to establish new priorities for government and society as the effort to meet those needs goes forward.

II. FOUNDATIONS FOR SUCCESS IN COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Though both compensatory education programs and the concept of "compensation" itself pre-date federal initiatives in this field, it was Title I which first gave such programs national visibility. Moreover, Title I added an important dimension to earlier state and local programs in that it required evaluation; those who framed the law insisted that an effort be made -- usually by the local directors of Title I programs -- to measure the results of this novel federal expenditure.

Critics of early reports on compensatory programs, whether federally funded or not, suggested that many of the "benefits" claimed -- new equipment, for example, or slightly smaller classes -- related more to teacher pleasure than to pupil gain. In some cases, reports which claimed significant pupil achievement soon after a program was established had to be modified later, after more time had elapsed. The "self-analyses" of Title I and other compensatory programs sometimes demonstrated more wishful thinking than hard evaluation.

Though Title I evaluations are becoming more sophisticated and helpful each year, the results of the testing effort remain mixed to date. Different evaluators have pronounced the same program both successful and unsuccessful. It was against this background of scattered testing and often confusing results that Congress, in its January 2, 1968 amendments to the ESEA, requested the National Advisory Council to report a year later on programs which hold "the highest promise of raising the educational attainment of these educationally deprived children."

The Council has attempted to meet this request in two ways:

First, by presenting in the Special Supplement (Part V) to this report summaries of 21 compensatory programs which have produced significant pupil achievement gains in language or numerical skills.

Second, by trying to discern those components which distinguish successful and unsuccessful programs.

The 21 programs described in the Special Supplement (Part V) were identified by the American Institutes of Research under a contract with the U.S. Office of Education's Office of Program Planning and Evaluation and under the cognizance of the National Advisory Council. AIR compared the successful and unsuccessful programs under a second, separate contract with the National Council alone.

Because educators and testers frequently disagree on the criteria for a successful program and about what "significant improvement" means, it is important to state here the definitions and criteria used by AIR:

1. Only compensatory programs whose directors had measured achievement through standardized tests were included in the AIR report. Ratings, classroom grades, and even special tests prepared by teachers were considered too unreliable and subject to bias by program personnel to provide an accurate index to achievement gains.

2. An improvement in achievement scores was not considered sufficient by itself to identify a "successful program." The achieved gain had to exceed that made by a control group over a comparable period of time, or that to be expected on the basis of normative data, and had to be statistically significant.

3. The terms "successful" and "unsuccessful" have a highly restricted meaning as used in this report; they denote only programs which produced pupil gains in language or number skills. If, for example, a program succeeded in improving pupil attitudes but failed in the formal, "cognitive" or academic area during the period observed, it was considered unsuccessful.

4. "Language skills" meant achievement in such areas as reading, speaking fluency and word recognition; "number skills" usually implied arithmetic and, in some cases, mathematics.

Methods, Procedures, and Limitations

Since judging a given compensatory program to be a success or failure is as delicate a process for the evaluator as it is painful for the director whose program is being evaluated, some additional observations about AIR's study must in justice be offered here.

In selecting the 21 programs described under the original USOE contract, the American Institutes of Research screened 1,000 compensatory programs, collected detailed data on 400, and actually visited 98. Of the 400, about 100 -- in addition to the 21 successful programs -- were considered suitable for the second, National Advisory Council study. Of that 100, in turn, 25 yielded sufficient data for AIR to describe them as "unsuccessful" by the definition given above.

The next problem in distinguishing the factors that made some programs successful and others not was to match the successful and unsuccessful programs by objectives and age of pupils. Simply put, this was a matter of ensuring that apples were not compared with oranges. In matching two programs, AIR did not require that the objectives be identical in content or level of specificity; AIR and the National Council believed that a similarity in major purpose -- improving reading skill, for example -- would permit a valid comparison. Analogously, though it was clearly improper to compare a secondary school program with one aimed at preschool pupils, it seemed reasonable to match a program for first-graders with one for third-graders.

Program data for the comparisons were collected under four headings: 1) program objectives; 2) students served; 3) cognitive achievement gains; and 4) program components.

Under "objectives," the analysts described briefly what the experimenters in each program intended their students to achieve. The actual process, treatment or method was at this stage considered of secondary importance. If, for example, one program used dramatization to help children read while another used teaching machines for the same purpose, the goal was specified under this heading and the respective method treated elsewhere.

Under "students served," the analysts described as comprehensively as possible the ethnic backgrounds, socioeconomic status, and numbers of students involved, as well as any special criteria used to select students for each program. Many programs operated for more than a year, serving successive groups of students. To take this changing population into account, the analysts specified the group to which each evaluation referred, and sometimes based an evaluation of success or failure on a single year's operations.

Under "cognitive achievement gains," the analysts considered only those indicated by standardized tests, as mentioned above.

Finally, the "program components" refer to distinctive teaching methods, health or educational services, and other elements that made up an individual program and gave it its character.

As a result of this matching process, the AIR had to eliminate two of the 21 successful programs for comparison purposes simply because no comparable, "unsuccessful" program could be found. In the end, nine successful programs were compared with two unsuccessful programs each, and nine more successful programs compared with one unsuccessful counterpart each.

The Subjective Element

Having defined their special meanings and procedures as carefully as possible, AIR research analysts (and the National Advisory Council) recognize the essentially judgmental aspect of any appraisal such as this report offers. They acknowledge that biases or special perspectives developed over a period of time -- mainly in connection with related studies -- may have influenced their analysis of the data in question.

The data themselves, being stated as facts and figures, have every appearance of objectivity; nevertheless, placing these data in the appropriate category required subjective judgment on occasion, for some categories were more susceptible to bias or special interpretation than others.

The program component "team teaching," for instance, might be defined broadly to include any attempt by two or more teachers to share the instruction of their classes; on the other hand, it can be validly restricted to programs in which a proper team was established, regular meetings of the team held, and the duties of each member of the team clearly defined. Though the analysts preferred the latter, accurate definition, the data sometimes demanded a definition more like the first.

Also, the data alone were not always adequate for drawing conclusions from comparisons. The analysts were dealing with probabilities rather than certainties, and often had to choose the most likely explanation of a given result rather than being able to fix on a certain scientifically proven cause. Hence, the suggestions offered here as to the foundations for success in educating disadvantaged children represent reasonable, analytical judgments rather than irrefutable demonstrations.

The programs described in the Special Supplement do not, of course, represent the universe of successful compensatory programs. The U.S. Office of Education estimates that there are about 20,000 Title I programs now in operation; in addition, there are many more compensatory programs funded by sources other than Title I. Because of the Council's time and resource limitations, AIR could examine only a small portion of the total; those described in the Special Supplement do, however, seem to represent accurately the kinds of programs which have been demonstrably successful.

Results and Comments

Appendix A of this report illustrates one of the comparisons that AIR made between "successful" and "unsuccessful" programs. The suggestions that follow -- concerning those elements of compensatory education programs most likely to produce significant gains in pupil achievement -- are drawn from the entire series of 18 comparisons. Of the 18, 4 were at the pre-school level, 10 at the elementary, and 4 at the secondary.

From the pre-school comparisons, it is fairly clear that:

- a program of less than two months' duration has little value at all;
- teacher training is essential; and
- objectives must be clearly defined in advance.

The successful pre-school programs all had certain features in common: careful planning, including the definition of academic (cognitive) objectives; teacher training (usually including frequent reviews of the program); and much use of small groups. Materials were selected carefully for their relevance to program objectives. Two programs stressed diagnosis of individual pupils' needs, three limited their curriculum and methods strictly to what was needed to achieve the objectives and meet the needs, and one removed competing stimuli from the classroom. Parental involvement featured as important in only one of the successful programs. *To summarize the comparisons, success in pre-school programs seemed to be founded upon*:

- careful planning, including statement of objectives;
- teacher training in the methods of the programs;
- small groups and a high degree of individualization; and
- instruction and materials closely relevant to the objectives.

At the elementary level, ten comparisons were drawn. *Instruction irrelevant to the stated objectives of the programs seemed to be the most frequent reason for failure at this level*. No success factor was common to all ten of the comparisons, but *academic objectives clearly stated* and *active parental involvement* seemed to be most important, followed by a high intensity of treatment (that is, pupils were given many hours in the program), an emphasis on directly attacking pupils' problems, and the use of reading specialists, small groups and individual tutoring. Also important at this level were teacher training and the supervision and training provided for aides. While the patterns are not so marked, it seems that success in compensatory programs at the elementary level largely depends upon:

- academic objectives clearly stated;
- active parental involvement, particularly as motivators;

- individual attention for pupils' learning problems; and
- high intensity of treatment.

In the four secondary school comparisons, the concomitants of failure were fairly obvious: programs failed because they were too "diluted," had very loosely structured objectives, or too wide a range of goals. An academic emphasis was missing from several of the unsuccessful secondary programs. Those that succeeded all had clearly stated academic objectives, often based on individual diagnosis, and incorporated tightly controlled teaching linked to these objectives; small group work was important in two. Successful programs at the secondary level seem to be founded upon:

- academic objectives clearly stated;
- individualization of instruction; and
- directly relevant instruction.

Far from being dramatic, the results of this study are perhaps not even surprising. In general, the factors consistently identified with successful compensatory education programs and consistently lacking in "unsuccessful" programs might have been advanced on the basis of theories of good management or common sense. But the results are nonetheless of real importance in two directions:

- On the negative side: The analyses repeatedly showed that real compensatory education does not result from the mere addition of personnel, or equipment, or special services. Any of these elements can contribute to success if they are carefully integrated into a well-planned program and made relevant to the program's objectives.
- On the positive side: The first requirement in planning programs to overcome learning retardation is to establish clear goals, specific academic objectives; the second is to concentrate attention and resources on those objectives.

The latter result has implications that should be raised: It is largely on the basis that private enterprise would operate education programs by relating methods to goals that the recommendation is made with increasing frequency to "farm out" compensatory education programs to business firms. The merits of such proposals are considerable, but there is no reason why schools cannot identify targets and marshal resources with equally successful results -- if they understand the needs and procedures and have the will.

It must be stressed again, however, that the AIR comparisons termed "successful" only those programs which emphasize cognitive gains. And this point leads to a question which the Council believes is both relevant and important: Should programs for the education of disadvantaged children focus only on cognitive gain? Will an enhanced ability in reading and numbers suffice to enable the children of the poor to break the cycle of disadvantage in which they are caught up? Improving cognitive ability is crucial and perhaps -- given the continuing limitation on resources -- deserves the highest priority among all those needs which the Council and others have identified as attaching to disadvantaged children. But the goal of cognitive achievement -- which seems clearly discrete because it is easily comprehensible -- probably will not itself be reached if other needs (such as the health needs elaborated upon elsewhere in this report) are completely ignored.

Recommendations

The Council recommends that:

1. The Office of Education should engage in a special effort to disseminate examples of demonstrably successful compensatory education programs -- such as those presented with this report -- to be used as touchstones for other programs. (The recent OE publication, Profiles in Quality Education, is an excellent, though long overdue, example of the kind of dissemination activity which needs to be expanded by the Office.) We also urge state and local Title I planners working on continuing programs or new ones to consult with those whose programs have been judged successful, and to examine similar programs whether they are deemed successful or unsuccessful.

2. The Office of Education should explore both administrative and legislative means of providing rewards for well-designed, successful programs and incentives for the expansion of such high quality programs. In this connection, the Office should work with the states to secure their help in establishing Title I program priorities which take into account examples of proven success or suggested failure.

3. The Office of Education, in cooperation with the states, should develop criteria to ensure that the evaluation data submitted be more uniform and comparable than is currently the case. Such criteria would foster more informed judgments, based on comparable and comprehensive information, about the success or failure of education programs for the disadvantaged and about the measurements used to reach these judgments.

4. Professional educators and social scientists should intensify their review of achievement tests currently in use so as to further reduce any components which might be biased against the child of disadvantaged background and hence conceal indications of true, latent ability. We further urge these professionals to move beyond cognitive achievement tests and into other realms -- self-concept, creativity, motivation, behavior -- where compensatory education programs may have equally important long-range results.

III. THE PARTICIPATION OF NONPUBLIC SCHOOL CHILDREN IN TITLE I

Apart from providing the first major federal assistance to public schools in our country, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) had added significance in that its Title I offered public aid to disadvantaged children whether they were enrolled in public schools, in private schools, or in no school at all. The public-private controversy attracted considerable attention during Congressional debate on the bill, and practical as well as constitutional questions were raised. But the need was great and obvious, the means were deemed appropriate, and Congress voted for the plan by a strong majority.

The concept of using federal funds to attack educational handicaps of disadvantaged children, whether in public or nonpublic schools, has gained increasingly widespread and solid support since Title I first went into operation. Although ESEA has been amended in 1965, 1966, and 1967, the desire of Congress to help disadvantaged nonpublic school children has remained firm.

Both major political parties have backed the 1965 Congressional vote. The 1968 Democratic platform supported Title I, obviously including the feature of aid to disadvantaged public and nonpublic school children. The Republican platform was quite specific in its endorsement of the concept, urging "the states to present plans for federal assistance which would include state distribution of such aid to nonpublic school children and include nonpublic school representatives in the planning process."[1]

Still, the issue and the practice involved remain delicate matters. Though the constitutionality of Title I is periodically challenged, two other concerns are more commonly raised:

First, has Title I, in reaching out to poor children in private and parochial schools, been administered consistent with the limitations of the law?

Second, is Congressional intent being frustrated by state and local practices and attitudes so that disadvantaged children in some nonpublic schools are denied help to which they are entitled?

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[1] Republican Platform 1968, p. 9. The statement continues: "Where state conditions prevent use of funds for non-public school children, a public agency should be designated to administer federal funds."

The Council has recognized both concerns. Its first annual report to the President in March 1966 stated that it was necessary:

> to emphasize the need for most careful attention to the administration of the act in order to protect against violation of our constitutional safeguards, and to insure that needy children in private and parochial schools will receive all the services to which they are now entitled by law.

Discrete studies relating to one or the other of these issues have been undertaken. A study conducted for the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, and directed by a group of researchers at Boston College, looked at Title I programs in thirty small and large communities.[2] It concluded that participation of private school children varied from location to location, that there was considerable private school dissatisfaction with the level of participation, and that this dissatisfaction was warranted. The study was conducted during the first year of Title I and does not reflect the many changes which have occurred since that time. Nor did it attempt to discover whether the programs it viewed in operation conformed to Office of Education guidelines. It is, however, the only wide-scale examination of this aspect of Title I attempted before the present study.

Professor George R. LaNoue of Columbia University, who has written strong commentaries on the church-state issue for both the Civil Liberties Union and the National Council of Churches, recently conducted a study of nonpublic school participation in New Jersey.[3] On the basis of his interpretation of Supreme Court precedents in the church-state area, Professor LaNoue concluded that a number of local Title I programs in New Jersey include some practices of questionable constitutionality. (Specifically, he detailed the use of equipment and personnel on private premises which he believes to run counter to constitutional propriety and legislative intent.)

Though others have written about one or another aspect of disadvantaged nonpublic school children and public funds, no one has to date provided an overall picture of this aspect of Title I.

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[2] "Program Participation of Nonpublic School Children," 90th Congress, 1st Session, December, 1967, U.S. Government Printing Office.

[3] "Church-State Problems in New Jersey: The Implementation of Title I (ESEA) in Sixty Cities," Rutgers Law Review, Winter Issue, 1968.

The difficulties of providing such an overview are readily apparent. An exhaustive study would require enormous resources -- resources of a magnitude not available to this Council. But after three years of Title I's effective existence, the Council believes that broad patterns of operation, and effects of and influences on operations, can be discerned and interpreted. Hence the Council has attempted to study, with the help of a special researcher,[4] the participation of nonpublic school children in Title I programs. Our wish was to identify and report broad patterns and practices at the federal, state, and local level. The Council did not instruct its staff to spend their major efforts in ferreting out possible individual misuses of public funds, but did instruct them to be alert to questionable practices, and to the way these practices were handled by responsible officials.

The Council's report has three facets:

1. At the federal level: A review of Office of Education guidelines and procedures governing the participation of private school children, including OE monitoring of such participation; also, a review of statistical information indicating trends in nonpublic school pupil participation nationwide.

2. At the state level: Consideration of the effects of state laws and constitutions, and of the attitudes of state and local educational agencies, on nonpublic school pupil participation in Title I.

3. At the local level: A look at Title I programs in 17 cities, particularly the extent to which nonpublic school children are participating -- the kinds of programs they are joining, the location of the programs, and the opportunity they are given to participate.

The Council wished to help provide, in short, a clearer perspective of the actual situation and to suggest ways by which the goals of the framers of Title I could better be accomplished.

Federal Guidelines

A number of U.S. Office of Education guidelines refer to the participation of nonpublic school children in Title I programs. These guidelines, or criteria for local programs appear in several sources, including the Federal Register, Title I Program Guides issued by the Commissioner of Education, and memoranda sent to Title I Coordinators by the Director of the Division of Compensatory Education of the Office of Education. No single document presents all current regulations.

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[4] Henry S. Lufler, Jr., a graduate of Wesleyan University and currently a Ph.D. candidate in political science at the University of Wisconsin. Mr. Lufler, with other members of the Council staff, spent the summer of 1968 working on this study under Council direction.

Many of the original 1965 guidelines are still applicable, though some have been changed in content or emphasis. Several pertain to the participation of nonpublic school children in Title I programs and to the role of nonpublic school officials in planning and evaluating programs.

Participation of Nonpublic School Children

The original provisions of Title I indicate that nonpublic school children must participate but do not clearly spell out the nature of the participation, saying only that:

> To the extent consistent with the number of educationally deprived children in the school district of the local educational agency who are enrolled in private elementary and secondary schools, the local educational agency must make provision for including special educational services and arrangements (such as dual enrollment, educational radio and television, and mobile educational services and equipment) in which such children can participate.[5]

Almost two years later, the Office of Education, reacting to indications that private school children were not fully participating under the law, clarified the meaning of the law and ordered that nonpublic school children "be provided genuine opportunities to participate" in Title I programs.[6] And on March 18, 1968, the guidelines were made more explicit when Commissioner Howe informed the chief state school officers that it was necessary that "the needs of all (both public and nonpublic) school children in the eligible low-income areas" be assessed to guarantee "genuine opportunities" and that the nonpublic school children must receive services that are "comparable in scope and quality to those provided to meet the high priority needs of public school children."

Planning and Nonpublic School Officials

Title I of ESEA does not mention nonpublic school officials. Nor do the original 1965 guidelines insist that nonpublic school officials be involved in the planning of Title I programs. The Office of Education suggested only that they be consulted by the public school official applying for funds. The February 1967 regulations went a step further and required consultation, stating programs for nonpublic school children shall be determined "after consultation with persons knowledgeable of the needs of these private school children." The March 1968 guideline from the Commissioner was even more explicit requiring the assessment of the needs of private school children to be carried out "in consultation with private school authorities" and this consultation must "provide the basis for" selecting the private school children to participate and determining the special services for them.

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[5] P.L. 89-10, Sec. 205(a)(2).

[6] Federal Register, Feb. 9, 1967, p. 2747.

Evaluation

Title I requires annual evaluation of programs to measure their effectiveness. The initial Office of Education guidelines concerning the evaluation of programs involving nonpublic school children indicated only that they be included. And it was not until the March 1968 guideline that the participation of private school officials in the formulation of evaluation procedures was called for. A later memorandum, dated August 8, 1968, from the Director of the Division of Compensatory Education stated that the same nonpublic school officials involved in planning should be consulted concerning evaluation. (It is distressing to note that at the same time the Office of Education was urging local school districts to increase nonpublic school participation in evaluation, its recently completed major nationwide sample evaluation survey did not include nonpublic school children. The Council urges the inclusion of nonpublic school children in any further evaluation.)

These OE directives indicate that the evaluation of nonpublic school participation has only recently been made more rigorous. The specific requirements remained unchanged until 1968, so we do not yet know how these changes will affect the participation of nonpublic school officials in the evaluation process.

The Guidelines and This Report

The study on which this report is based was undertaken in the summer and fall of 1968, before the most recent guidelines went into effect. Those issued in 1965 would be in force for the 1966-67 programs discussed in this report; those issued in 1966 and early 1967 would apply to 1967-68 programs.

An additional memorandum was issued on February 14, 1966, entitled "Involvement of Private School Students in Title I ESEA Projects." Since this memo was received by state Title I coordinators before any of the programs we studied were started, its contents are worth reviewing. The memorandum expressed the concern of the Office of Education about the "rather minimal involvement of private school students" and urged action to change the situation.

It was against the background of these particular guidelines that case studies of operating Title I programs were conducted.

The States

Title I gives considerable powers to state departments of education. Community project plans or program evaluations are approved at the state level and transmitted to Washington. Federal funds and regulations reach local communities through the state agencies.

Various states treat nonpublic involvement in Title I in different ways. Some emphasize Washington's desire that disadvantaged private and parochial school children be fully involved in Title I. New York and California have issued guidelines on the participation of these children which combine state suggestions with the federal directives. Connecticut has a special employee whose job it is to ensure equitable participation by nonpublic school children in Title I programs. Pennsylvania requires additional evidence, beyond that suggested by federal regulations, that nonpublic officials have been involved in the planning and evaluation of Title I programs. State evaluation forms vary considerably, some asking communities to provide detailed descriptions of their attempts to seek out disadvantaged nonpublic school children and others scarcely mentioning them.

Some states do not emphasize the Office of Education guidelines on nonpublic participation. Our researcher noted North Dakota, Illinois, and Massachusetts as examples of this group and offered other examples of state management of the public-private issue:

- North Dakota's 1967 annual report states that "The public schools generally had established priority needs beforehand and the nonpublic schools then cooperated as much as they desired in the program as established." By contrast, even the first procedure suggested by the Office of Education would, if followed, involve consultations with appropriate nonpublic school officials in the course of the development of Title I programs.

- In Missouri it is illegal for public school personnel to provide services in nonpublic schools, thus preventing instructors from offering remedial assistance to children at this location. Missouri also requires children to remain in one school for six continuous hours on a school day, thus preventing dual enrollment programs.

- In Oklahoma, while no public school personnel can visit private schools under any circumstance, nonpublic school children can visit public schools to participate in programs so long as transportation is provided by the private schools.

- New York's Attorney General found that his state's restrictive "Blaine Amendment," which prohibits any aid to nonpublic schools, need not apply to Title I since the program was totally federally funded. He reasoned that so long as Title I funds were kept separate from state and local monies, no violation occurred. Participation of private school children in New York has been relatively high.

Obviously some state laws serve to reduce the participation of disadvantaged nonpublic school children. Some officials, notably in New York, seek ways to avoid this consequence. Other officials in other states are unable or unwilling to seek such interpretations or changes in the law.

Patterns of Community Implementation

The patterns of practice summarized here are those of 17 communities.[7] Visits of several days each were made to five cities where public and private school leaders were interviewed, and specific programs observed and discussed with project leaders. To collect information in cities not visited, telephone interviews were conducted with local public officials and private school administrators. Prior to all visits and interviews a detailed examination was made of the official Title I evaluation reports for all the communities, and discussions were held with Office of Education officials and others familiar with the communities under study.

The reasons for selecting the 17 test cities were as follows: First, three appeared to have either markedly high or markedly low levels of nonpublic participation according to Office of Education figures. Second, all were known to have large numbers of disadvantaged nonpublic school children. Third, three cities were recommended by the heads of educational groups, either because of cordial public-nonpublic school relations, or because of suggested hostility. The rest were selected because they appeared to be relatively "typical" according to Office of Education evaluations and a stratified random mail survey of school superintendents.

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[7] (1) Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, (2) Washington, D.C., (3) a large Mid-Western city, (4) a large Eastern city, (5) a small Eastern city (site visits), (6) St. Louis, (7) Kansas City, Missouri, (8) Bismarck and (9) Belcourt, North Dakota, (10) Columbus, Ohio, (11) New Haven, Connecticut, (12) Madison and (13) Milwaukee, Wisconsin, (14) East St. Louis, Illinois, (15) San Francisco, California, (16) New Orleans, Louisiana, (17) Charleston, South Carolina.

Detailed case studies of four of the five cities visited during the summer of 1968 are presented in Appendix B. In the same series are summary commentaries on three other communities: Washington, one of the cities visited, whose situation is special because, among other things, it is the location of the U.S. Office of Education; New York City, whose uniqueness lies in the huge size of its public school system, in the number and variety of its nonpublic schools, as well as in a host of problems which, if not intrinsically unlike those of other cities, are not comparable because of the differences in magnitude; and Bismarck, North Dakota, which in some components seems to typify a number of other community situations found in the course of the present study.

With one exception the Council has not identified the communities which served as case studies. We have not done so for several reasons. First, ESEA has encouraged basic changes in a number of areas which this Council endorses but which are difficult to effect quickly and completely on the local level. More specifically, even in those instances where the intent of Congress to help nonpublic school children is not being fully realized, the shortcomings seem to result more from communications problems and other practical difficulties (though none of them seem insurmountable, given awareness and will) rather than from plain bad faith. Further, the purpose of this report is not to identify culprits but to shed light and suggest improvements.

The exception to the rule of nonidentification is the case study of "City D" -- Pittsburgh. We identify Pittsburgh because it seems to have done a model job with Title I. Admittedly, Pittsburgh has certain advantages. All the Catholic elementary and secondary schools in Pittsburgh, for example, come under the jurisdiction of the Catholic School Office, a well organized and highly centralized agency. In any case, the principal reason for Pittsburgh's success with this aspect of Title I lies in regular, cordial, and open communication between public and nonpublic school officials.

Implementation of Title I in Pittsburgh follows closely the letter and spirit of the law. While services are provided for eligible nonpublic school children under the direction of public school officials, nonpublic school officials are given the opportunity for regularly contributing to the planning and evaluation stages. The disadvantaged child in Pittsburgh receives help regardless of the school he attends and that is the intent of Title I.

Varying degrees of participation by disadvantaged nonpublic school children were found in the other Title I cities studied. A few cities carefully provided such children genuine and equitable opportunities; most offered participation only in scattered programs at the convenience of public school Title I administrators. There was no indication that either the number or percentage of nonpublic school children was increasing from previous years.

These findings for the 17 cities studied during the 1967-68 school year must be read in light of the figures for nonpublic school children participation available for the preceding two years on a nationwide basis. The following are Office of Education figures:

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965, P.L. 89-10
TITLE I, ASSISTANCE FOR EDUCATIONALLY DEPRIVED CHILDREN

Table 1. Number of Participating Children, by Public and Nonpublic School Enrollment: Fiscal Years 1966 and 1967

Children enrolled in--	Fiscal year 1966		Fiscal year 1967	
	Number (thousands)	Percent	Number (thousands)	Percent
Total....................	8,299.9	100.0%	9,046.2	100.0%
Public schools...........	7,773.3[1]	93.7	8,580.1[2]	94.8
Nonpublic schools........	526.6	6.3	466.1	5.2

[1] Includes children not enrolled in any school such as dropouts.

[2] Includes children not enrolled in any school and children in institutions for the neglected and delinquent.

Table 2. Expenditures for Instruction and Service Activities, by Public and Nonpublic School Children Participating: Fiscal Years 1966 and 1967

Children enrolled in--	Fiscal year 1966			Fiscal year 1967		
	Total		Per pupil	Total		Per pupil
	Amount (thousands)	Percent		Amount (thousands)	Percent	
Total.................	$778,113	100.0%	$94	$883,928	100.0%	$ 98
Public schools........	747,842	96.1	98	848,832	96.0	100
Nonpublic schools.....	30,271	3.9	57	35,096	4.0	75

Such figures must be read with caution, for several reasons. First, the Office of Education suggests that in the first year of Title I, local education agencies across the country were uncertain about both eligibility criteria and reporting requirements, and consequently counted more public and nonpublic school children as participants than ought to have been included. Second, a major statistical error in reporting the number of nonpublic school participants during the first year exaggerated their participation by 40,000. Third, the number or percentage of disadvantaged children in private schools does not approach the number, or percentage, of disadvantaged children in the public schools of our country. Fourth, figures for the 1967-68 school year are still not available. Finally, even if the number of participating nonpublic school children is less the second year, the estimated Title I per pupil expenditure rose from $96 to $99 for public school children, for the years 1966 and 1967, while they rose from $58 to $76 per child for nonpublic school children, and the total expenditure for nonpublic school children rose almost $5 million.

On the other side, the first thing to be said is that the per pupil expenditures still differ significantly between public and nonpublic school children. Second, the extent of nonpublic school children's participation in Title I may in a sense be exaggerated even by those figures cited, for private school children often participate in programs only a few hours each month, and in programs not designed for their special needs, while public school children participate for larger portions of the school day and month. Next, in the 17 cities studied there was no indication that the quantity or quality of services for nonpublic school children was improving. Hence, if available information does not constitute incontrovertible evidence of inadequate participation of nonpublic school children, they nevertheless offer circumstantial evidence of considerable weight.

Planning and Evaluating Local Title I Programs

In the cities studied, local Title I planning rarely involves active participation by nonpublic school officials, despite Office of Education guidelines. Most cities merely present final plans for Title I programs to nonpublic school officials for their information, if they do that much.

Whether or not programs designed for project areas make provision for eligible nonpublic school children depends on the knowledge and sensitivity of public school Title I officials. Typically selected on the basis of census tract and public welfare data, project areas chosen may not include within them the nonpublic schools with the largest numbers of disadvantaged children. Once low income neighborhoods are identified, boundaries are fixed around them to match public school boundaries, and private school children residing within them or "in reasonably coterminus areas" may be considered for participation.

Perhaps it is not unreasonable to assume that nonpublic schools serving the same disadvantaged neighborhoods as public schools have comparable percentages of disadvantaged children. But since public and nonpublic school boundaries are not usually the same, project area boundaries and the inclusion or exclusion of children in nonpublic schools are not matters that should be decided according to inflexible rules. They probably would not be if nonpublic school officials were included in Title I program planning.

Similarly, the pattern of Title I evaluations shows them to be the exclusive product of Title I officials. This practice makes it even more difficult to ascertain whether nonpublic participation is justified or unjustified in particular cases. But when the absence of any local nonpublic participation is explained in official evaluation reports as simply the result of "lack of parental interest" -- a frequent explanation -- one wonders if there are not more complicated reasons. Again, if nonpublic school officials were given some voice in evaluating those programs for which their disadvantaged pupils are eligible in principle, such explanations would occasion less doubt.

The Role of Nonpublic School Officials

If low participation by nonpublic school children in many Title I programs can be ascribed in part to the attitudes and practices of public school officials, including Title I personnel, the fact that this pattern is not changing significantly is attributable in considerable part to organizational problems of nonpublic schools, especially Catholic schools.[8] In many cities there is no effective central organization capable of representing the total parochial school network. Elementary and secondary schools often report to separate ecclesiastical orders rather than a single diocesan school office. The result is that a coordinated assessment of needs within the system is lacking, as is the simple ability to speak with one voice in communicating such needs to those whose job it is to consider them in planning Title I programs.

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[8] Although private schools operating under a variety of auspices were considered in connection with this study, Catholic parochial schools are by far the most numerous of all nonpublic schools on a national basis. Catholic school children constitute over 85 percent of all private school children in this country.

Other reasons for the low involvement of nonpublic school children in Title I services include disinterest and particularly reticence on the part of nonpublic school officials. While voicing private complaints about the dispersal of Title I funds and unilateral establishment of programs, parochial school officials admitted they had not expressed their concerns directly to local Title I or other public school officials for fear of "jeopardizing cordial relations" or of seeming ungrateful for that bit of Title I help their needy pupils had been given -- usually in the form of equipment loans.

The convictions of nonpublic school officials are not necessarily the best guide to the Title I eligibility of the disadvantaged children they represent, for those convictions may be misplaced. For example, some of the nonpublic school officials interviewed, unhappy at the relatively low level of participation by disadvantaged pupils enrolled in their schools, spoke repeatedly of not receiving their "fair share" of the city's Title I funds; occasionally they mentioned a "fair share" percentage coinciding with the percentage of nonpublic school children in the city. Of course, the law intends no such "sharing" or division of funds. Further, the number of disadvantaged nonpublic school children was not proportionate to the number of disadvantaged public school children in any city in the present study. The phrase "fair share" as used above may be convenient shorthand, but such usage is inconsistent with the intent of the law.

The problem, once again, is primarily one of clear guidance from the top to the bottom -- from the Office of Education through the states to local Title I officials -- and communication between school officials public and nonpublic, who have the final power to achieve or deny the legislative intent that disadvantaged children will be served by Title I regardless of where they go to school.

The Monitoring System

The Council wished to present, in this report, broad patterns and practices related to nonpublic school children's participation in Title I. Thus, as stated earlier, the Council did not instruct its staff to spend its major efforts in searching out possible violations, but rather to be alert to improper practices in the course of their broader study. In fact, no obvious violations were uncovered in the site visits, and no questionable practices were discerned in the course of the extensive conversations with public and nonpublic school officials in the other communities surveyed.

We do not suggest that no violations have occurred. Others have claimed to document violations; indeed, given the fact of very wide dissemination of and essentially local control over Title I funds, plus the vague guidelines and ambiguous legislative intent as to specific usages, it is almost inconceivable that misuse has not sometimes occurred. Still, if the dozens of public and nonpublic school officials interviewed in the course of the Council's study were not always completely clear about Congressional intent and the implications of federal guidelines, all of those questioned evidenced clear understanding that, for example, equipment loans to nonpublic schools are to be loans and not gifts, with the title and ultimate control remaining with public school authorities. Further, the practices observed conformed with the understandings expressed.

The point, however, is that the Council's focus has mainly been on how the use of Title I funds involving nonpublic school children has been monitored, and on how alleged violations are handled.

Violations

Generally, complaints to the Office of Education in Washington either suggest that disadvantaged nonpublic school children are not fully participating in Title I programs or that Title I funds in programs involving these pupils are being misused. In either case, the OE directs the complaints to the state Title I office which is required to submit to the federal office a statement of disposition. Generally the state Title I office passes the complaint to the local Title I coordinator for investigation.

All known complaints to Washington during 1967 and 1968 were examined for this study. They were surprisingly few. Several complaints which the Council knew had been sent were sought out by the staff and, in each case, the Office of Education appears to have forwarded them to the state asking that they be investigated. Reports were eventually returned from the local level to the state and finally to the federal government.

Office of Education files contain 38 letters concerning private school children and Title I received in the last two years. These included:

- 25 complaints about inadequate participation by nonpublic school children in Title I;
- 3 complaints alleging improper use of Title I funds;
- 8 requests for clarification of requirements; and
- 2 letters from nonpublic school officials expressing gratification for Title I aid.

In one instance involving a dispute between public and nonpublic school officials in New Orleans, federal officials were sent to mediate. However, Office of Education officials report that funds have never been cut off to local programs as the result of such inquiries and no court cases have ever been brought by those disappointed in this complaint procedure. Regardless of the official receiving the letter -- Congressmen, the Commissioner, and the President among others -- the procedure followed in answering was the same.

If alleged violations of Title I language, or of Office of Education guidelines interpreting that language, are fewer than might have been imagined, and seem to be handled fairly and consistently according to an established routine, the monitoring function of the Office of Education in this regard appears, nevertheless, to need strengthening. This is so for several reasons. First, some states have not developed any written guidelines or established any formal mechanisms for monitoring appropriate use of Title I funds with regard to nonpublic school children, leaving the burden for such monitoring on the U.S. Office of Education. Second, the Office of Education's procedure of referring complaints back to the state and local levels where they originated, without specific guidance and suggestions, potentially has the effect of allowing an official who has himself been a participant in the alleged infraction also to act as judge of the propriety of the practice.

Further, when serious charges of misuses of Title I funds are made in public forums, whether or not such charges are simultaneously formally presented to the Office of Education, informed judgment must be made as to whether the practices in question are in conformity with the law. The state education agency bears primary responsibility for investigating such matters, and for reporting their investigations and their disposition of the questions to the Office of Education. But the Office of Education has the responsibility to review such cases and, presumably, to take any necessary corrective action, including making recommendations to the state agency or even the withholding of funds, to correct misuses of Title I. In short, more than routine handling of more serious charges is to be expected at all levels, with persistent follow-through by the Office of Education. Whether the Office is sufficiently equipped for such follow-through is unclear from the examples -- which include both frivolous and serious allegations -- on record to date.

Summary of Findings and Recommendations

Following initial reluctance on the part of the Office of Education to interpret the basic legislative requirement on nonpublic school children participation in Title I, OE has attempted to strengthen the regulations and guidelines after it appeared that nonpublic school children participation was "rather minimal." Yet in spite of the stricter guidelines from the Office of Education, most of the cities studied show varying degrees of cooperation in involving nonpublic school officials in planning Title I programs; more often than not they offer nonpublic school children participation only in scattered programs at the convenience of public school Title I administrators.

The case studies and additional reports presented in connection with this report suggest several reasons for the limited participation:

- Nonpublic school officials are rarely included as active consultants in Title I planning and evaluation despite federal guidelines and despite the contribution they might make in strengthening their city's overall program.
- Reticence or lack of interest is displayed on the part of many nonpublic school officials in participation under Title I.
- Public school officials are sometimes prejudiced against participation by nonpublic school children, basing their opposition on personal opinions about the constitutionality of the Act.
- A number of state constitutions, laws, and attitudes seriously hamper the provision of genuine and equitable treatment for disadvantaged nonpublic school children.
- The frequent absence of a single spokesman for local nonpublic school systems considerably complicates cooperation and consultation with public school systems.
- Office of Education guidelines calling attention to low nonpublic participation and urging additional efforts to involve these children are usually directed to state Title I officials and are not available from any one source.
- There is insufficient follow-through at the federal level on implementation of guidelines and on monitoring of private school children participation.
- Title I project areas are not established with nonpublic schools in mind; generally, coordinators assume (often incorrectly) that nonpublic schools located near Title I

public schools enroll the same percentage of disadvantaged children. Little effort is made to locate disadvantaged nonpublic school children.

Based on these findings, the Council offers the following suggestions and recommendations:

1. We suggest that the Commissioner of Education designate a special, visibly placed official to monitor all aspects of the participation of nonpublic school children. This official would also supervise the circulation of guidelines recommended below, and keep tabs on complaints and questions. We have suggested that the greatest single need in the operation of this aspect of Title I is for regular, open, informed communication; and we believe that the example should be set at the top.

2. We recommend to the states that they designate, in their departments of education, a liaison officer between public and nonpublic school officials, overseeing the participation of nonpublic school children at the local level. Such an individual would remain in close contact with the official serving that function in the Office of Education in Washington. Similarly, we recommend to local public and nonpublic school officials that they designate an individual with sufficient time and resources to act as a liaison on Title I participation.

3. We encourage the Office of Education and the states to continue to urge the involvement of nonpublic school officials in the planning and evaluation of Title I at the local level. This effort could be given emphasis by providing space on planning and evaluation forms not only for the signature of nonpublic school officials but also for their comments on various aspects of the Title I program. Similarly, the comments of public school officials on the problems they have encountered in encouraging nonpublic participation should be invited.

4. We recommend that the Office of Education put into one updated document regulations and requirements on the participation of nonpublic school children in the various aspects of the Title I program. These guides should be published with clear annotations and should include a section on the several state laws which affect nonpublic participation in Title I. This booklet should contain all existing rules and requirements on the participation of nonpublic school children in Title I and show how these rules might apply in individual states; it should be made available for the widest possible circulation, especially at the local level.

5. We recommend that the Office of Education disseminate examples of programs of successful participation of nonpublic school pupils.

6. Having observed certain weaknesses in the present mode of deciding which children in which areas are eligible for Title I programs, we urge that the Office of Education and the states review the means of identifying eligible children and particularly of establishing target areas. It may be that amendments to the law are required to insure that the nonpublic school children are included in Title I programs regardless of the locations of their schools. On the other hand, it is not inconceivable that present arrangements are as practicable as can be developed as nationwide standards. However, because it seems clear that automatic delineation of target areas includes some children who are not so greatly disadvantaged and excludes some who are, the present approach needs to be reviewed and reconsidered.

7. Where services to children justify it, there should be an increase in shared time programs, joining public and nonpublic school children in common learning experiences. Such mingling is a positive intent of Title I. Yet few localities include shared time in Title I planning. It should be encouraged by disseminating reports of successful programs which incorporate shared time.

IV. HEALTH AND LEARNING: TITLE I'S IMPACT AND STILL UNMET NEEDS

The compelling reason for enactment of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 was, in the words of the accompanying House Committee report, the "close relationship between conditions of poverty and lack of educational development and poor academic performance." All too often one of the key factors in that relationship is poor health.

As he goes off to school for the first time, a child may carry with him the legacy of an illiterate family -- he may be ignorant of the alphabet and unable to recognize words. Or he may be retarded in learning to read for a simpler but equally disadvantageous reason: bad eyesight. He cannot see well and his poor vision has never been detected.

It is difficult for the teacher to reach boys and girls in class who have no motivation to learn; who feel that school is a burden, or at best a diversion, or that in any case it is irrelevant to life as they know it. But it is just as hard for the teacher to involve in a learning process the boy or girl who suffers from bad hearing, or an emotional disorder, or an empty stomach.

The obvious connection between a child's health and his ability to learn was recognized by the Congressional authors of Title I who specified "school health, psychiatric and psychological services" as a proper program for educationally disadvantaged children under the legislation. Similarly the National Advisory Council, from the first months of its existence, has been concerned about poor health as a barrier to learning and interested in the impact Title I might have on this problem.

The Council first surveyed the variety and quality of Title I projects across the country in the summer of 1966. One finding was that provision for meeting health needs was not consistently included in the design or implementation of programs for educating the disadvantaged. In a subsequent survey by approximately 60 consultant-observers who visited 86 school districts in 43 states in the fall of 1966 and the winter of 1967, the Council made a detailed inquiry into use of Title I funds for health-oriented programs. The study revealed that: 1) poor children have more severe health problems than their advantaged counterparts and suffer greater educational disadvantage as a result of physical disability than was commonly realized even in education circles; 2) resources available to meet health needs in poverty areas were often inadequate; 3) local education agencies and officials were not always aware that Title I funds could be used for health services; but that 4) in some instances Title I funds apparently made possible health services which might not have been provided otherwise and which seemed important in overcoming or reducing health barriers.

In light of these findings, the Council decided that a more concentrated study was required to determine precisely how great were the health needs of disadvantaged children and how much Title I funds were helping to meet them. At our behest, Dunlap and Associates conducted the study in the spring of 1968. The contract specified a follow-up review of 50 Title I programs which had been examined earlier by our consultant-observers; in fact, the present study included a review of 60 programs, including visits to 14. Council staff members accompanied Dunlap researchers on a number of site visits and were also involved in the design and review stages of the project.

In general, the Dunlap study confirms the Council's earlier assessment. Health needs of poor children are a severe and continuing problem. The educational progress of too many disadvantaged youths is impeded by defective eyesight, bad teeth, and other physical and emotional disorders. However, except in the area of psychological disorders, progress does seem to have been made in the last several years in the detection of health problems, and Title I has quite clearly played a part in that progress in the areas surveyed. Treatment, unfortunately, does not always follow detection, especially where resources for treatment are lacking or inaccessible. In fact in some of the localities visited, child health problems were detected, diagnosed, and treated only because Title I provided the necessary money for the work.

Approximately 80 percent of the school systems contacted during the recent survey have expanded and improved health services with Title I funds. In some instances, Title I has given children from poor families medical treatment for the first time in their lives. Our sampling suggests that eligible school districts are spending in the range of 5 to 20 percent of their Title I funds for health services, including the provision of food.

Typical services include general physical and specialized examinations and tests, inoculations and immunizations, and the provision of certain basic remedial devices such as glasses and hearing aids. Often the money is used to hire school nurses. In some cases these elementary services have been provided for the first time under Title I, ostensibly because no money had been available for them before. In other cases Title I funds merely expanded existing services. (In the latter cases, while the Council understands that local conditions must determine priorities, we wonder whether instead of merely adding to an examination and inoculation schedule, school systems ought not to use the health portion of their Title I budgets for treatment of the more serious problems that have already been detected.) Title I health programs have provided prescription drugs, psychological counseling, psychiatric care, dental treatment, and surgery.

It is sad that the dearth of health care resources and facilities for the poor of some locales forces the use of federal education funds for physical examinations and other elementary health services. We wish it were not so, especially in view of the limited annual appropriation Title I unfortunately continues to receive. If the need were not so basic and so clear, we would rather see Title I funds spent on efforts more directly educational than feeding hungry children. But under the circumstances we cannot quarrel with this use of Title I funds. Given the fact that "there is an undisputable association of increased morbidity and mortality with poverty,"[1] and the fact that poor health can prevent a child from learning, we are happy that federal resources are being made increasingly available, even if in a piecemeal way, to break the cycle of poor home-poor health-poor education.

Title I and Food

Against this background, we note that in a number of the school systems surveyed the largest expenditure of Title I "health" funds was for free lunches. Hunger and malnutrition have only recently been dramatized -- if not "discovered" -- as a major national health problem though, in fact, the need is one of long standing. Belated or otherwise, there is now a keen concern that a nation such as ours, with general prosperity and abundant food, should permit a number of its citizens to suffer from malnutrition, and some of them to go about hungry.

As detailed in a June, 1968 report of the U.S. House Committee on Education and Labor, federal food service programs have been greatly expanded in the 1960's, particularly those providing free breakfasts and lunches to disadvantaged children. But as the Committee also pointed out; "More than 4-1/2 million needy children ages 5 through 17 are not receiving free or reduced price lunches. More than 6,600 schools in economically needy areas are without food services."[2] Rectifying this situation requires awareness, purposefulness, adequate resources, and the cooperation of governmental units and private groups at all levels. The federal government must continue to take the lead in developing policies and programs if hunger and malnutrition are to disappear in America. Until that happy day we cannot but approve the use of Title I funds to help nourish the children of the poor when no other resources are available.

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[1] "Delivery of Health Services to the Poor," December, 1967, Report of a Program Analysis Group of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare and published under the auspices of the Assistant Secretary of HEW (Planning and Evaluation).

[2] House Report No. 1590, 90th Congress, 2nd Session (U.S. House Committee on Education and Labor; accompanying H.R. 17873, June 26, 1968, p. 2.)

Health Personnel

One of the least surprising findings of our survey is the continuing shortage of medical and paramedical personnel, not only in school systems but in communities at large. Several programs reported that funds available to hire health personnel went unspent because there were no qualified applicants. This shortage, coupled with the consistent efforts by school systems using their Title I "health" funds to try to secure such personnel, raises an important point. School nurses, for example, often provide only health screening, referral, and record-keeping services (rather than preliminary diagnosis or treatment). Can some of these jobs be performed with less elaborate and less formal training? Under some Title I programs, the nursing staffs are all college-trained and Public Health Service-qualified. Other programs have similarly qualified nurses in charge, but their health support personnel include practical nurses, medical technicians, and "health aides."

It seems especially important to consider this question in connection with a Title I study because Title I has increased the demands for medical services. By expanding health screening and examination programs, Title I has produced a significant increase in referrals to public health clinics in a number of localities. As Title I funded programs increase the likelihood of detection and treatment of health defects, the legislation expands awareness of the professional health personnel shortage and may even contribute to the shortage itself. Since this situation seems destined to continue for some years to come,[3] it would seem sensible to reexamine the functions of school health personnel and reassign those that can appropriately and competently be performed by others.

Coordinating Title I and Other Resources

There is obvious need for improved coordination between school health programs and the aggregate health resources of the community -- medical personnel, public health clinics, welfare agencies, privately sponsored health support services -- a need that has grown greater as federally sponsored programs such as Head Start and Neighborhood Health Centers have augmented more traditional resources. At the present time interaction and coordination usually occur only on the chance knowledge of a given individual, such as the school health nurse, of all available resources.

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[3] See, for example, the report, Health Manpower: Perspective 1967, Public Health Service Publication No. 1667, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1967; esp. pp. 9-11.

The alert school nurse will check to see if a child in need of medical attention has a "health services enrollment card" authorized by a non-Title I medical or social welfare program. If he has, she knows she can send him to a physician for immediate treatment. If he hasn't, she may then resort to Title I funds, preferring not to do so if immediate treatment is required because it often takes longer to work out arrangements for payment, hence for treatment, under Title I procedures. If local civic organizations provide services for disadvantaged children, as they often so helpfully do, these services (typically the fitting of eyeglasses or hearing aids) tend to be "saved" for children of poor families in schools not eligible for Title I.

Detecting Health Needs and Following Through

Title I coordinators in most programs surveyed are not sure which local programs offer health services for children or how much money is available. The coordinators generally assume that teachers, principals, nurses, and counselors take care of coordinating the use of such services. It is true that the latter are generally more aware but, again, their knowledge seems to be chance matter. A better means of coordination is clearly needed if we are to close the gap between the detection of health defects, a practice in which schools are becoming increasingly proficient, and the essential follow-up to such detection. Though schools are a natural instrument for screening child health needs and even preventing illness, school officials no doubt ask themselves how far their responsibilities extend and at what point other community institutions or services should step in. However responsibility is apportioned, the schools must make sure that the ball is not dropped midway between detection and correction.

One barrier to successful follow-up underscored by our consultants is transportation. A simple matter for most of us, transportation can be frustrating and costly for residents of a black inner-city ghetto or an isolated rural community. School health programs which showed consistent patterns of follow-through -- and a high level of success in correcting child health defects -- usually were (1) willing to spend Title I funds to transport children and sometimes parents to the required services, and (2) willing to pay the costs of treatment, if no other resources were available.

Although in health, as in other areas, Title I programs seem to be involving parents to a greater degree, the trend is not as clear in those programs surveyed as the Council would wish. Still, Title I health programs seem to have reinforced the follow-up activities of principals, teachers, and school nurses; in some cases they have brought health aides and community representatives into the effort to make sure that once a child's health problem is identified, someone contacts his parents and, perhaps by staying involved, makes sure that something is done about the problem. The examples of success in remedying health defects offered by a number of school health officials most often included the element of personal contact with the child's family by the school nurse, health aide, or other school personnel. Such examples stand in contrast to another pattern of situations where a child's problem was detected but nobody was sure afterwards whether he ever got proper treatment. All of which suggests once more the vital need for direct and personal lines of communication between school and parent.

Summing Up: Health Needs in Title I Schools

Most Title I programs surveyed now have adequate screening and referral facilities and a number have developed satisfactory follow-up procedures. As is the case with other schools throughout the country, few Title I schools have directly connected treatment facilities although one or two health clinics have been acquired with Title I funds. The emphasis in most Title I programs remains on screening and referral. Once these first steps have been taken, obtaining treatment often becomes a major problem. Public health clinics are sometimes overtaxed because of the increased number of referrals and a child's parents may fail to seek treatment for a detected problem, often because they can't. Clearly the present need is to combine the emphasis on diagnosis with an emphasis on treatment.

The most frequently mentioned and observed needs in the area of treatment and correction are dental treatment, fitting hearing aids, and surgical correction of internal or external defects. Tooth problems are extremely common among disadvantaged children; because of this prevalence and a shortage of dentists, it is often months after the detection of defects before actual dental appointments. Hearing aids are an unmet need because they are expensive. Their provision is one of the services civic organizations often perform. But if hearing aids -- or eyeglasses or surgical treatment -- are not provided, it is generally because school personnel are unaware that Title I funds can be used to supply them and, therefore, have not requested such funds as specific line items in their Title I proposals.

In almost every program mental health is a major difficulty. It is difficult to find qualified nurses, and even more difficult to hire psychiatrists, psychologists, psychiatric social workers, and counselors. Consequently many school systems are forced to refer severe cases of behavior disorder to school counselors who are overloaded with work and unqualified in any case to provide the needed therapy. Although several programs provide subcontract funds for such services, they are usually totally inadequate to the magnitude of the mental health problems.

Mental problems of disadvantaged school children can be overdramatized. Obviously not every child who fails to conform to a given teacher's expectations of proper classroom behavior needs psychiatric care. But mental health problems, like afflictions of the body, are not uncommon among the very poor. And while other health needs -- such as dental treatment -- were mentioned with comparable frequency, the greater menace of mental problems seems obvious: A behavior disorder is likely to be much more dysfunctional than a bad tooth. It is this important implication, as well as the frequency of the reported need, that makes the mental health of disadvantaged children rank high in any order of unmet needs.

Two more needs require reemphasis: First, the lack of convenient clinical facilities in city ghetto or isolated rural community makes transportation a key link between detection and treatment. Where transportation has not been given adequate attention those responsible for Title I programs have not realized that Title I funds can be expended to transport children -- and even their parents -- to the appropriate facility.

Second, the pattern of arrangements under which the health needs of Title I school children seem to be most successfully met, compared with those arrangements which trail off into uncertainty, remind us of the need for the involvement of parents -- both in connection with their children's particular problems and in a more general health education effort.

The Council's Suggestions and Recommendations

The demands made on Title I have been very great and varied, determined according to locally set priorities. Because good health is crucial to the learning process and because health needs often are of high priority, Title I can help to meet those needs. But with so many needs, and such limited funds available under Title I, a strain inevitably exists between health services components and (more directly) educational components of Title I plans for local school districts.

Among the more obvious and more important ways to begin to resolve this dilemma are (1) for Congress to follow the original plan and begin to increase appropriations for Title I; and (2) for new ground rules to be devised which will make more certain that those in greatest need get the most help. The Council would support both steps.

Meanwhile, other steps are in order. Local level planning is necessary to ensure that the various federally funded programs providing health services are interacting efficiently and to maximum advantage and that they are complementing traditional community services. More comprehensive studies of needs and resources -- in which Title I personnel ought to take part -- could lead to more effective health programs. (For example, under Title XIX of the Social Security Act of 1965, some of the $2 billion provided might be tapped by local communities to reinforce efforts to meet health problems.)

At the national level, professional health personnel and government officials must become better and more constantly informed about local services and facilities so that these can be included in national planning. We must be sure that national efforts are not predicated on the assumption that no services exist locally, for despite some unfortunate patterns of poor local services this Council has found and noted, our impression is that the general picture of health service provision is slowly improving.

Just as evaluation is supposed to be an integral part of Title I education projects, so Title I health programs ought to have meaningful evaluation components built in from the start. The importance of direct communication with parents in getting children's health defects corrected suggests the potential value of health evaluation sections or subcommittees of local Title I evaluation committees composed of parents as well as professionals, nonprofessional health aides, and teachers. Goals and needs of existing programs might be reevaluated and priorities reconsidered by such committees. And their actions could be documented and transmitted to the state and national levels for inclusion in overall planning and evaluation efforts and transmittal to other Title I programs.

If better planning of health programs is in order at the state, local, and national levels, so without question is better communication. Title I health program planners should be conscious of patterns and priorities of the health needs of the children of the community and know all potential resources which might help meet them. They should also make sure that all those who work in Title I schools know these things. The dedicated people working with disadvantaged children across the nation are sometimes hampered either by not having a full picture of the range of needs of the disadvantaged or by not being certain as to how to apply the resources of Title I, together with others, in fulfilling those needs. Stronger and more regular communications systems serving all those involved in Title I efforts in common geographical areas -- states, regions, or metropolitan areas -- seem to be needed.

Finally, we recommend that Congress, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, professional associations in the medical and health fields, plus Title I personnel at all levels, begin to explore with others the question of how communities might overcome, or at least mitigate, the shortages of medical personnel. That problem exists in a majority of communities across the nation and, according to all estimates, will continue to be acute for the foreseeable future. The essential question is whether there are persons, apart from those traditionally qualified, who might perform needed functions.

Teacher Corpsmen have helped dramatically in supplementing the efforts of regular teachers, of whom there never seem to be enough. Returning Peace Corps volunteers and military veterans have taken up teaching posts in inner-city schools; they have not only filled apparently unfillable vacancies but have brought unsurpassed energy, concern, and sensitivity to their tasks. Could not well-trained, practically experienced para-medical personnel -- such as medical corpsmen returning from the military -- serve disadvantaged communities in important ways and so reduce a variety of burdens now carried by short-handed doctors and nurses? The role and functions of such persons would have to be defined very carefully as have those of school "health aides." The need is great and the resource seems to be appropriate if it can be tapped since the challenge of helping lift up the children of the poor is as important as any this nation faces. New approaches to meet it, we believe, must be explored.

Indeed, the latter suggestion relates to the central purpose of this review by the National Advisory Council. For though we have called attention to Title I's actual and potential impact on the health needs of disadvantaged children, our main purpose has been to illuminate those needs and to emphasize our conviction that they are of urgent importance, now and for the future.

V. SPECIAL SUPPLEMENT: 21 SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS IN EDUCATING DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

The following 21 programs, identified by the American Institutes of Research under contract with the Office of Education and in consultation with the National Advisory Council on Education, are representative of a wide array of compensatory education programs and of the most successful of such programs. The programs described here were chosen on the basis that they had produced significant cognitive achievement gain on the part of the pupils enrolled in them.

For further discussion, see pages 19 and 20 of Part II. For more complete description of the 21 programs, one may wish to contact the American Institutes of Research in the Behavioral Sciences, Palo Alto, California, P.O. Box 1113, Palo Alto, California 94302, or contact those persons designated in the description of each program.

1. Preschool Program - Fresno, California

Language development was emphasized in this program for three-to-five-year-old children, most from Mexican-American families on welfare. Started in 1964-65 with a pilot group of about 45 students, the program grew to 750 students in 1967-68. Total cost in 1967-68 was $480,000.

Each child spent the majority of his class time in a small discussion-and-activity group with one adult and no more than four other children, a ratio made possible by teacher aides and parent volunteers.

Informal discussion, classification games, songs, fingerplays, outings, and other activities were designed to present new English words in context, to encourage use of English, to introduce standard sentence structure through example, to stress listening and speaking skills, and to emphasize articulation by example rather than by correction. Each of the 50 classes met three hours daily, five days a week, in 27 portable classrooms set up at 19 elementary school sites.

Personnel included a program coordinator, one full-time and one half-time resources teacher, 50 half-time teachers, 50 Spanish-speaking teacher aides, three full-time and two part-time nurses, and two full-time secretaries. School personnel at the elementary sites took a share of responsibility for custodial, administrative, clerical, and cafeteria services.

Parents were encouraged to play a full instructional role. They met twice a month and formed an advisory committee which met once a month. Monthly staff meetings and a number of inservice meetings for teachers and aides were also conducted.

Pre- and posttests were administered using the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPTV). According to this measure, 38 of the 47 classes tested gained significantly in intelligence from September to May. All ethnic groups showed significant gain, but the gains were such as to equalize verbal ability as measured by the PPVT.

Contact: Mrs. Frances Forrester
Coordinator
Preschool Program
305 E. Belgravia Avenue
Fresno, California 93706

2. Infant Education Research - Washington, D.C.

Negro boys were tutored from the age of 15 months until 36 months. None of the children, selected from relatively stable low-income homes, had any serious sensory or neurological problems. Beginning in September 1965, 28 children were chosen for the experimental group and 30 for the control group. Tutoring began two to three months later.

Staff included a half-time project director, a full-time project supervisor, a full-time educational supervisor, eight full-time female tutors, and a full-time secretary. There were also three part-time test administrators and a project officer from the National Institute of Mental Health.

Instruction was on a one-to-one basis, one hour a day, five days a week, in the child's home. The tutor tailored the training to each child in cooperation with the educational supervisor and another tutor who shared responsibility for the child. The tutor talked with the child, showed him pictures, taught new words, played games, read from books, assisted in coloring pictures and putting together simple jigsaw puzzles and the like. Emphasis was upon a flexible, spontaneous, pleasant experience. The mother and other members of the family were encouraged to participate.

Tutors received two to three months initial training and met with the educational supervisor two hours each week as the project progressed. Mothers were paid $1.00 for each tutoring session and $10.00 each time they brought the child to be tested.

Various tests of intelligence were used. The effectiveness of the program was indicated by the increasing superiority of experimentals over controls as the program advanced. Follow-up evaluation continues.

Contact: Dr. Earl S. Schaefer
National Institute of Mental Health
5454 Wisconsin Avenue
Chevy Chase, Maryland 20203

3. Early Childhood Project of the Institute for Developmental Studies - New York City

The program grew out of studies of the intellectual development of disadvantaged children begun in 1958 by Dr. Martin Deutsch and the Institute for Developmental Studies. In 1962 the findings were translated into a demonstration enrichment program for preschoolers; in 1964 the program was expanded through grade three, and by 1967-68 it included 17 classes in four public schools.

The curriculum was organized as five "programs": prekindergarten and kindergarten which stressed language development and concept formation, reading, mathematics, science, and creative dramatics. A nongraded programmed approach of carefully ordered sequences for learning was utilized for the subject matter areas, involving physical manipulation of objects and specially designed games. Teacher-guided play was central to the creative dramatics program.

Personnel included a curriculum director, four curriculum supervisors, 17 teachers and 17 assistant teachers, three community aides, and a social worker. Subject matter specialists developed curriculum materials and plans and a college student was hired to give extra attention to four children who presented behavior problems.

Each teacher conducted a monthly meeting for parents to discuss emphasizing ways in which they could support the program. A three-week orientation was conducted for new prekindergarten teachers and periodic inservice training was given to familiarize all teachers with the needs of their students and the program's goals and methods. Films, seminars, workshops, classroom visits, displays, and publications were included in the dissemination effort.

Evaluation has not yet revealed any discernible trends common to all groups of participants, although significant gains have been noted.

Contact: Dr. Martin Deutsch
Institute for Developmental Studies
239 Green Street
New York, New York 10003

4. The Perry Preschool - Ypsilanti, Michigan

The Perry Preschool attempted to lead culturally deprived children to academic success and social adjustment in the elementary grades. The pupils -- three and four years old, Negro, disadvantaged, and functionally illiterate -- did not have pretest scores above 85.0 on the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale.

The two-year program had three elements: a daily three-hour nursery session, a weekly 90-minute home visit, and less frequent group meetings of the pupils' parents. It operated from September 1962 until June 1966 with about 24 children evenly divided into three- and four-year-olds, participating annually. Each age group was designated as a "wave." Data was also gathered on a control group.

Waves 0, 1, 2, and 3 were exposed to an instructional method which emphasized development of an intensive language environment, thinking skills, impulse control, and task orientation. Children were free to move from one teaching center to another with instruction organized into thematic units easily adapted to individuals. Afternoon field trips were also included.

Wave 4 was exposed to a more highly structured program based on the developmental theory of Piaget. The goal was to help the child move from concrete, sensory-motor intelligence to symbolization.

Staff included a part-time director, a full-time curriculum supervisor, a full-time program supervisor, and four full-time teachers.

For each group or "wave" of children, Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale, the Leiter International Performance Scale, and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test were used to test the intellectual ability of the children. These and other tests were also used to measure intellectual ability later in the program. Results showed significant gains for the experimentals over the controls.

Contact: Dr. David P. Weikart
Director
Perry Preschool Project
Ypsilanti Public Schools
Ypsilanti, Michigan

5. Diagnostically Based Curriculum - Bloomington, Indiana

This program attempted to diagnose learning deficiencies of disadvantaged preschoolers in language, concept, and fine motor development in order to apply specific remedies to each child. Many regular preschool and kindergarten activities were included but as vehicles for the development and remediation of specific cognitive, psychomotor, and social behaviors.

The students -- five-year-olds from families of the lowest socioeconomic status -- included 139 Appalachian whites and four Negroes. All scored between 50 and 85 on the Stanford-Binet L-M Intelligence Scale.

Three studies with similar design were completed in three consecutive years (1964-67) after a one-semester pilot study. In each study the children were divided into three groups of approximately 15 and placed in either an Experimental Preschool (EPS), Kindergarten Contrast (KC), or At Home Contrast (AHC) group. The EPS children received diagnostic treatment; the KC children received a traditional kindergarten treatment; the AHC received no treatment. A longitudinal study of the children was also conducted as they proceeded through various public schools.

Personnel included three principal investigators, a full-time project coordinator, a part-time reading specialist, one teacher and male teacher aide each year, and part-time graduate assistants who administered tests. Health, social work, and curriculum specialists were also available as consultants.

According to standardized tests, results for intelligence and language development favored the EPS group. Results in the fine and total motor skill equally favored the EPS and KC groups over the group who stayed home.

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6. Academic Preschool - Champaign, Illinois

Children one or more years behind in language, reading, or mathematics must learn faster than usual in order to catch up with the norm. The academic preschool program attempted to accelerate learning by defining specific performance criteria and employing direct instruction -- similar to that used in a regular school -- in place of the informal style of the usual nursery school.

The experimental children were four and five years old, predominantly Negro, and from poverty homes. Their parents were mostly unskilled or semiskilled laborers, at least 30 percent of whom were receiving some welfare.

The program began in the fall of 1964 and results were collected through the spring of 1968. Three groups of 15 to 20 children each received special assistance before entering first grade. The first group, Study I, participated in the preschool from 1964 to 1966 and completed the second grade in June 1968. The two later groups, Study II and Study III, were in the program from 1965 to 1967 and 1966 to 1968 respectively. The most recent data was collected from a follow-up study of groups I and II in the early elementary grades. Only Study II is described in the full report since it was the only one for which there was both an experimental and a comparison group.

The permanent annual project staff consisted of two full-time administrators and four part-time teacher experimenters. Additional consultant services were available.

The effectiveness of the program was indicated by the significant superiority of the experimentals over the controls in Stanford-Binet IQ gains over the two-year instruction period. The experimentals also tested considerably above first-grade level in mathematics and language as measured by the Wide Range Achievement Tests.

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7. Homework Helper - New York City

High school students earned money by helping inner-city children with homework and reading for two hours one or two afternoons a week. The children were third through sixth graders from a Lower East Side slum.

Under the auspices of Mobilization for Youth, Inc., a community agency, the program began in February 1963 with 110 tutors and 300 pupils. In 1967-68 it was put under the decentralized control of the Board of Education and grew to 750 tutors helping approximately 2,000 children. Total cost in 1963-64 was $151,700.

Nine centers were established in school buildings, each staffed by a licensed teacher and a number of tutors. A program coordinator was also employed. Each center had an attendant for clerical duties and, since the tutoring occurred outside school hours, custodial services were also necessary.

Tutors, paid $1.50 to $2.00 an hour, were trained by the master teacher to follow a prescribed schedule with the pupils: refreshment and chat; 40 minutes for homework problems; 30 to 40 minutes for reading materials not used in school; 20 minutes of creative activity such as writing or art work, and recreation in the form of educational games. In 1966 a Homework Helper Tutor Manual was prepared by the program coordinator to summarize the content of the training offered to tutors.

On testing, pupils who received four hours tutoring a week made significant gains in reading age compared with controls, but not pupils who received only two hours. Tutors showed considerable gains in reading age compared with controls.

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Homework Helper Program
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8. Intensive Reading Instruction - Hartford, Connecticut

Nearly 500 children from three inner-city schools were given comprehensive reading instruction over a ten-week period from three Intensive Reading Instructional Teams (IRIT). The pupils, in groups of 15, moved from teacher to teacher, spending an hour each with specialists in three areas: 1) phonics and word-attack skills; 2) basal reading, stressing vocabulary and comprehension; and 3) individualized reading, encouraging the student to develop an interest and pleasure in literature.

The IRIT team consists of a full-time project director, three reading specialists, six reading teachers, and three clerk-typists. The pupils took this special instruction during the morning, returning to their sending schools for their regular afternoon classes.

The IRIT program also utilized motivational and multimedia techniques, books and other reading materials not found in the regular classrooms, pupil-teacher conferences to stimulate and individualize each child's reading progress, and close contact with parents to assess the effects of the IRIT program on the child in his own home.

Pupils referred for IRIT enrollment came from schools qualifying for federal and state aid. Over the three years of the program, they have come from grades three to six though the 1967-68 effort was aimed largely at fourth and fifth graders.

Primary results of IRIT have been measured in terms of pre- and posttesting, using various forms of the California Reading Achievement Test. Significant gains were noted in vocabulary, comprehension, and total reading achievement. Limited studies were also made of the changes in measured intelligence and the extent to which the reading gains carry over into the following school year.

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9. College-Bound - New York City

Raising the sights of slum children to the possibility of college was the aim of this program. Ninth and tenth graders in poverty-area schools were given intensive education in the hope they would stay in the program throughout high school and then pursue higher education.

The program stressed: 1) small classes of 15 to 18 students; 2) double sessions of English; 3) group and individual counseling; 4) field trips for cultural enrichment.

Students were informed at the outset, and frequently reminded, that they were expected to work toward college admission. To make this a tangible and realistic goal, cooperating colleges and universities (now numbering 100) committed themselves to admission and financial help for a specific number of program students, generally 5 for every 1,000 entering undergraduates.

The first session (summer 1967) was attended by 2,000 students at eight centers. The following school year 3,000 special students were in 24 high schools (200 in each of six schools, 100 in each of 18). Total enrollment is expected to be 10,000 when the first students are seniors.

Staff included a full-time director and assistant director, one part-time coordinator per school, one part-time teacher-in-charge per summer center and an equal number of assistant teachers-in-charge, four part-time summer-session supervisors, about 120 part-time teachers for the summer-session and five extra full-time teachers per 100 program students for the academic year, one guidance counselor per 100 program students, one part-time librarian at each summer center, one part-time family assistant for every 50 to 70 students, one or two teaching aides per classroom, plus secretaries.

Over a six-week period of the first session, average gains of three months to a year were indicated on four tests of reading and arithmetic. The evaluation is confined to this session.

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10. After-School Study Centers - New York City

After-School Study Centers extended the school day for two hours of remedial reading, remedial arithmetic, library training, and homework assistance, plus a Special Potential Development Service providing music, art, and health education.

Most of the pupils were Negroes or Puerto Ricans in grades two through six in several poverty areas of New York City. They were given the opportunity to attend the Centers on the basis of one or more years of retardation in reading or arithmetic. None was already receiving special help in school.

The program was begun in 1964 with 167 centers in city schools, most of them public. Between October of that year and May 1967 about 30,000 pupils participated with 13,000 in remedial reading or arithmetic. The Centers were staffed by a program coordinator, supervisor, and part-time secretary in addition to the teachers.

An evaluation of the 1964-65 program showed that a sample of fourth-grade pupils enrolled in the reading program for three to six hours a week made significantly greater gains in reading age than a control group from the same schools. The more the children attended, the greater their gains. In the 1966-67 program, pupils participating showed significant gains over expected performance in reading at each grade level, second through sixth.

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11. Self-Directive Dramatization - Joliet, Illinois

The relationships of self-directive dramatization, self-concept changes, and reading achievement were examined in two studies -- one with white middle-class third through seventh graders, the second with predominantly poor Negro children in grades one through four. Entire classes were selected. For the second study, control groups were drawn from the same school and a second similar school for comparison.

During the year the children dramatized stories from three to five times a week for two periods of three and a half months each. Normal schoolwork proceeded whenever self-dramatization was not in progress.

The program involved more acting than reading but less than in an actual play since no props or costumes were used. Groups of five or six children performed according to their interests in one of a number of stories. Each group chose a leader and each child picked one of the story's characters to portray.

Staff included part-time project directors and four teachers. Other teaching personnel were indirectly involved.

In the first study gains in reading ability and in self-concept over the duration of each self-dramatization period for each group were measured, tested against a null hypothesis, and intercorrelated. In the second study the same analyses were done but, in addition, gains by the experimental groups were compared with corresponding control groups where possible.

In both studies, statistically significant reading gains by the experimental groups were noted.

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12. More Effective Schools - New York City

Begun in September 1964, More Effective Schools (MES) focused on preventing academic failure in the early years by a combination of techniques -- prekindergarten, small classes, special subject teachers, heterogeneous classes, and intensive teacher training in the strategies of team teaching and nongraded instruction.

MES aimed at improved performance in reading and mathematics, as well as producing pupil interest, high staff morale, and a generally enthusiastic atmosphere. Curriculum innovations were left to the initiative of the individual teacher.

Following close of regular classes at 3:00 p.m., the buildings were kept open until 5:00 p.m. for After School Study Centers. MES classes were reduced to maximums of 15 in kindergarten and first grade, 20 in second grade, and 22 in grades three through six. The pupil/teacher ratio was reduced to 4 to 1 with each school having a team of four teachers for every three classes as well as a teacher-guidance medical team.

A complete range of audiovisual equipment and extra supplies was provided and specialists employed to enrich instructional content, with special emphasis on reading and language skills. Volunteers were recruited from the neighborhoods to help with the program and a community relations coordinator employed to work with parents.

Benefits in language and math achievement, as measured by standardized tests, were unclear due to conflicts in the various kinds of evaluation designs employed. The full report contains several interpretations.

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13. Project Concern - Hartford, Connecticut

This two-year busing program involved experimental and control groups carefully selected to assess the academic effects of four different environments on inner-city children: 1) a suburban school; 2) a suburban school with remedial-supportive assistance; 3) an inner-city school; and 4) an inner-city school with comprehensive and intensive compensatory services.

Project Concern began during the 1966-67 school year after extensive consultations with the school boards, school administrators, and citizens of the suburban communities. For the experimental sample, intact classes were selected at random from target schools with at least 85 percent nonwhite enrollment. During the first year 255 inner-city pupils were bused to grades K-5 in five suburbs.

Of the 255, 213 received supportive services in groups of 25 from a teacher and an inner-city mother serving as nonprofessional aide. The remaining 42 pupils were placed in suburban schools without such help. Pupils were assigned to vacant seats in suburban classrooms, two or three to a class.

Evaluation was conducted in four areas: mental ability, academic achievement, personal-social development, and creativity. Results of the analysis are not yet known though preliminary findings are mixed. However, it was concluded that the placement of two or three children in a suburban classroom had no measurable negative effect on the academic achievement of the suburban child.

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14. Elementary Reading Centers - Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Remedial reading instruction and wide reading opportunities were offered in 15 elementary schools, teachers working with six to eight pupils at a time. Each group received about 30 minutes' instruction a day, five days a week, for one semester of the 1966-67 school year.

More than 1,000 pupils, fourth through eighth graders, black and white, came to the centers from the densely populated poverty areas of the city. Although the centers were located in public schools, nonpublic children also attended with priority given to pupils of average or above-average IQ who were a year or more retarded in reading.

A diagnostic approach was used to identify the specific needs of each pupil. Materials and equipment selected by teachers included books of high-interest but low-reading level, highly motivating games, workbooks, and audio-visual devices.

Oral and silent reading skills were tested, on a before-and-after basis, using the Wide Range Reading Test (oral) and the California Reading Test (silent). Gains averaging about six months were made during the first semester, that is, after four months of instruction, while the average gain measured in the second semester was seven months for silent reading and nine months for oral reading, based on an average actual attendance of about seven months. These results compare favorably with expected gains of about five months in seven for disadvantaged pupils.

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15. The School and Home Program - Flint, Michigan

"School and Home: Focus on Achievement" was an experiment designed to raise the academic level of underachieving elementary school children by involving parents in the daily reading exercises and study habits of their children. Parents were encouraged to read aloud to their children.

The children were Negroes primarily from low-income families living in the industrial city of Flint, Michigan. With few exceptions, their parents came from the rural South to seek employment in local industrial plants and had quite limited educations.

The experiment was undertaken in two elementary public schools during the 1961-62 school year. It involved approximately 1,100 children enrolled in kindergarten through grade six. In the fall of 1962, this program was expanded to a third elementary school in Flint, and the total population in the experimental group became 2,300. Data for the third school is not available.

Personnel included a coordinator, teacher volunteers, a part-time secretary, and volunteer mothers. Teachers met regularly with parents to describe what should be done at home; they also made reading assignments to the children.

A control group was established in another Flint public elementary school and was composed of children who represented socioeconomic backgrounds similar to the experimental group.

Gates Reading Tests were used to measure the effectiveness of the program, which was indicated by the greater increase in vocabulary and comprehension scores of the experimentals over the controls.

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16. Programmed Tutorial Reading - Indianapolis, Indiana

Programmed tutoring by 78 special teachers supplemented regular reading instruction for approximately 800 first graders in 30 inner-city schools during the 1966-67 school year; in 1967-68 there were 1,200 students in the program.

Each pupil was tutored individually for one or two 15-minute sessions each day. Tutors were high school graduates, had no professional training or experience, and were recruited by means of PTA bulletins and word of mouth. They received 18 hours of group instruction along with on-the-job supervision. Their activities were tightly programmed to relieve them of professional teaching decisions while providing for maximum progress of the individual child. Tutoring sessions took place outside the classroom where space was available.

For every 20 to 22 tutors, the program also employed a part-time professional director, a full-time head supervisor, a field supervisor, and a secretary. The program was developed through several years of experimentation at Indiana University before it was begun in Indianapolis schools in 1965.

On several measures of reading, children receiving programmed tutoring were superior to a control group and to a group receiving conventional tutoring.

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17. Teacher Expectation - South San Francisco

Teachers in a San Francisco elementary school were told that the results of a test administered in their classrooms indicated that certain children would show unusual intellectual gains during the coming academic year. The children marked for rapid improvement were, in fact, chosen randomly without regard to their test scores. After the tests were administered, the teachers were given the names of those children predicted to show accelerated achievement. No additional instructions were given to the teachers. At the end of the experimental period the same test was given to the students.

The students attended an elementary school in a low income area of South San Francisco. Many of the children were from broken homes where their mothers worked and/or the family received welfare funds.

The elementary grades from one to six were part of this program. Over 500 children were pretested, and 370 children were posttested. The first test was given in May 1964 after which the teachers were told of the "bloomers." A midyear test in January 1965 and a posttest in May 1965 were given. From the differences of the May 1964 and May 1965 tests, gains attributed to the experimental variable were determined.

The Flanagan (1960) Tests of General Ability (TOGA) were administered at each test time. The results of these tests indicated a large, significant increase in IQ in the experimental children over the rest of the children in the class during the academic year.

After two years, the increase in total IQ scores by all experimental children was not significantly greater than the increase by all the control children.

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18. Speech and Language Development - Milwaukee, Wisconsin

This program provided intensive therapy for disadvantaged pupils with poor oral language ability. Speech therapists worked with the children in groups of six to eight. Treatment was given up to three hours a day for a period of up to 15 weeks.

The pupils were drawn from the first and second grades of seven elementary schools in poverty areas of Milwaukee targeted by the city's Social Development Commission.

Milwaukee public schools employed speech therapists before this program. They dealt with conventional problems such as lisping and stuttering. But the new program, begun in February 1966, offered through specially selected speech therapists a curriculum rich in verbal and auditory stimuli, with many opportunities for manipulative and play experiences and a series of structural units, all with the aim of teaching skills in verbal usage. Two hundred seventy-three children participated during 1966-67.

In the absence of more appropriate measures, the Ammons Quick Test of verbal-perceptual development was used to assess the benefits. Significant gains over control groups were reported for the first experimental sample of 136 pupils.

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19. Communications Skills Centers - Detroit, Michigan

Six Communications Skills Centers (CSC) provided diagnostic and remedial reading services for 2,845 educationally disadvantaged children in grades two through twelve during 1966-67. The Centers were established at two levels: three for elementary and junior high pupils, three for high school students. The CSC project also included one special reading development center and 14 supplementary classrooms.

The CSC project was conducted during the summer as well as the regular school year. During the regular school year, elementary and junior high pupils attended two 60-minute classes a week; senior high students attended four 45- minute sessions a week. Most students attended one 60-minute class, five days a week, during the summer session.

After diagnosing the students' reading deficiencies, the CSC staff assigned each to a small class (six to ten students) for individualized instruction using a variety of specialized reading materials and equipment. Children whose reading difficulties appeared to stem from personal maladjustment were referred to the social therapist or psychologist for further diagnosis and counseling.

Buses specially provided for the project transported elementary and junior high pupils to the Centers. Senior high pupils walked to the CSC's, each located in a high school.

Standardized reading tests administered at the beginning and end of treatment periods indicated that mean achievement gains for the CSC pupils substantially exceeded those normally registered for grades seven, eight, ten, and twelve. Students in other grades showed slight reading improvement.

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20. Junior High Summer Institutes - New York City

In 1967 half of New York City's 22 summer junior high schools received federal support as Summer Institutes.

The city and summer schools had been in existence since 1960 for students who had failed specific subjects or were behind in reading. Instruction in a course was 90 minutes a day, five days a week, for five and a half weeks. The program specified small classes, educational aides, guidance counselors, and other special services. The reading and mathematics curricula were highly structured and conducted according to prepared manuals.

The students had just completed the sixth, seventh, or eighth grade in intermediate and junior high schools, public and nonpublic. They were recommended as needing remediation or repetition. All were drawn from poverty areas such as Harlem and Bedford-Stuyvesant.

On the staff were a project coordinator, supervisors, principals, 244 teachers and an equal number of educational aides, 11 guidance counselors, 11 librarians, and six reading consultants for the sample schools.

In six of the schools achievement in reading and mathematics classes was measured by the Metropolitan Achievement Battery. The mean gains of the pupils were .3 years in reading and .5 years in mathematics, over a five-week period.

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21. Project R-3 - San Jose, California

This program, concerned with learning problems of the disadvantaged, involved three new educational R's -- student Readiness, subject Relevance, and learning Reinforcement.

The subjects were eighth and ninth graders, largely Mexican-American, English-speaking, and underachieving at least one but not more than two years in either reading or mathematics as measured by the California Achievement Tests. Treatment consisted of a special curriculum which interrelated math, reading, and technological skills; a series of field trips; and an inservice training program for the project staff.

Project R-3 began in February 1967 with 37 eighth-grade students. Each subsequent year a new eighth-grade group was added in the fall with the prior group moving into the ninth-grade phase. Each group thus participated for two consecutive years.

The following full-time personnel were responsible for the eighth-grade R-3 program: a project coordinator, a mathematics teacher, a reading teacher, an electronics technician, and a secretary. A comparable staff directed the ninth-grade program. Civic and industrial personnel assisted in planning, evaluating, and, intermittently, teaching.

An evaluation report of the 1967-68 eighth-grade pupils' progress showed that they made significant gains over those of comparable controls on standardized tests measuring competence in reading and mathematics.

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APPENDIX A: AN EXAMPLE OF COMPARISONS MADE OF SUCCESSFUL AND "UNSUCCESSFUL" PROGRAMS*

The Programs

Successful:	Program A, The Academic Preschool in Champaign, Illinois; see p. 57 of Special Supplement (Part V)
Unsuccessful:	Program B, Wisconsin Program C, Pennsylvania

Their Objectives

Program A: Fifteen specific objectives were listed for this program, dealing with elementary but fundamental aspects of logic and vocabulary. For example, the correct use of negatives, knowledge of polar-opposites (hot-cold), simple logical deductions, counting, naming of colors, and so on. The first nine goals could be said to be associated with words and constructions, while the others were connected with numerical and reading skills. All the goals were developed with the need in mind to prepare children for entry into the formal education system. The goals were pursued very directly by the teachers, but the tests used (see below) did not test them directly.

Program B: The investigators identified the following as essential for success in elementary school and designed the program to teach: language development (listening, symbolization, articulation, etc.), social skills, a sound self-concept, and an awareness of cultural differences. The program itself stressed language development; this and IQ were directly tested.

Program C: This was a short-term (8-week) replication of the Program A curriculum in language only, using the same objectives.

Students Served

Program A: Different groups were involved in this program in various years, but the results quoted below refer to an experimental group of about 15 children aged 4-5 who were in the program for 2 years 1965-67. They were mostly Negro, of low socioeconomic status.

Program B: An experimental group of 20 children aged about 5, members of the 1963 kindergarten intake at a given school, was compared with a matched group at another school. The pupils were mostly Negro; all fathers were laborers. The selection criteria for both groups included low scores on several tests and questionnaires.

Program C: An experimental group of 46 4- and 5-year-old children eligible for the 1966 Head Start Program (i.e., from poverty areas), mostly Negro, was compared with similar controls. The experimental group attended for 8 weeks.

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*See discussion in Part II, especially pp. 20-22.

Assessment of Cognitive Achievement Benefits

Program A: The Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test and the Wide Range Achievement Tests were the chief measures of success in this program. Results on the Stanford-Binet showed the experimentals to have significantly higher scores than the controls, at the end of both first and second years. Before entry into first grade, the experimentals were achieving at the second grade level in both reading and arithmetic, and only slightly lower in spelling. These results were achieved in spite of the fact that the curriculum did not specifically prepare the pupils for these tests.

Program B: The experimentals failed to make significant gains on the Stanford-Binet vocabulary sub-scores while in the program, although both experimentals and controls showed significant gains in first grade, when they were outside the program. On the Illinois Tests of Psycholinguistic Ability, the experimentals made gains which were significant between pretest and posttest on some of the subtests, while the controls did not. No statistical comparison of the two groups was undertaken on the ITPA, however, and no conclusions should be drawn.

Program C: The PPVT and two subtests of the ITPA (auditory-vocal association and auditory-vocal automatic) were used to assess achievement. The results showed that the experimentals had made no significant gains over the controls.

Analysis of Program Components

General

The objectives of Program A and Program C were more limited than those of Program B, but all were aimed primarily at language development as a foundation for success in elementary school. The populations served were very similar in all three.

Although different tests were used in the programs, the Stanford-Binet vocabulary subtest was common to two, and two ITPA subtests to the other two. All the tests assessed language development, the chief objective of the programs. The other tests confirmed the remarkable success of the Academic Preschool and the relative failure of the other two programs.

Personnel

Qualified administrators supervised all the programs, and the children were taught by certificated teachers. Program A enjoyed a far lower ratio of pupils to teachers than the other two projects, there being only five pupils for each teacher, who taught them for 2 hours a day. In the other two projects, one teacher was responsible for 20 children. Parents and aides were not used in the classroom in Programs A or C.

Methods

In Program A, the pupils were divided into three groups on ability. Language, arithmetic, and reading sessions occupied large segments of each day. During the language class the teacher did not deal with themes (like "My

School") but with constructions (e.g., polar-opposites). In the arithmetic session counting and adding were emphasized. Reading was taught using a modified i.t.a. approach and a limited vocabulary. A limited number of toys and games was available. Each was strictly educational. The rooms were unadorned. Home visits were made by teachers and college students. Some field trips were organized.

In Program B, half the day was occupied by the normal kindergarten curriculum, the other half in teaching for the specific objectives of the program. The activities reported for the program included dramatization with puppets, pupil-written and illustrated newsletters, fifty field trips (in eight months), singing, and cut-paper projects.

Program C replicated Program A's language curriculum for only fifteen minutes each day, the other 2-3/4 hours being devoted to a conventional Head Start program. "Drill" in the same language areas as Program A was the method during the quarter hour daily.

Services

In-service training of teachers was nonexistent in Program B and very limited in Program C because of the short time available. In fact, Program C teachers barely seemed to know what was expected of them in the special daily quarter hour. Program A, on the other hand, took considerable trouble to train all the teachers in the methods and philosophy of the program.

Meetings with parents were a feature of Program A, while such contacts were incidental in the other two programs, parents being neither encouraged nor turned away.

Equipment

As indicated earlier, Program A operated with a very limited range of equipment, each piece being chosen for its educational value rather than as yet another stimulus. Audio-visual aids were used, but only when strictly required. The other two programs used a plethora of materials and equipment, particularly Program C, and were much closer to the typical middle-class kindergarten.

Tentative Conclusions

There is a good deal of evidence from these three programs to suggest that the undoubted success of Program A was based chiefly on:

- clearly defined objectives;
- teaching limited by these objectives;
- a reduction of competing stimuli;
- carefully trained teachers; and
- a small-group approach.

The lack of success in Program C was almost certainly due to brevity of exposure (10 hours per pupil, in quite large groups).

Program B suffered from the "opposite" of each of the points listed above.

APPENDIX B: COMMUNITY CASE STUDIES OF NONPUBLIC SCHOOL CHILDREN AND TITLE I*

City A

The first community to be visited has a population of 750,000 persons and is located in New England. City A has 135,000 school children, 90,000 attending public schools (67%) and 45,000 attending nonpublic schools (33%). These percentages are not reflected in the school populations of Title I project areas. In these areas with high numbers of educationally disadvantaged children there are 29,500 children: 24,500 public school pupils (80%) and 5,000 nonpublic school children (20%).

Title I expenditures for City A have been as follows:

1966-67	School year	$3,185,000
1967	Summer	447,000
1967-68	School year	3,416,000
1968	Summer	1,060,000

The bulk of City A's Title I offerings for 1966-67 was divided into three areas as follows:

	Expenditure
Enrichment Program	$2,500,000
Subsystem Program	650,000
Work-Study	100,000

Enrichment expenditures are devoted almost entirely to the hiring of additional teachers for city school system ($2,150,000 of the total program allotment). Also included are funds for equipment ($100,000), pupil transportation ($100,000), and other smaller expenses. According to City A's official evaluation of its enrichment program, "nonpublic school pupils participate in summer and after-school programs. . . . Since school scheduling differs greatly it is difficult to plan for day school programs."

Under the "subsystem program," three schools have been selected -- one elementary, one junior high school, and one high school -- to receive intensive exposure to "experimental programs." Again, the bulk of the funds was used to hire and support teachers ($550,000) and administrators ($50,000). With regard to the participation of nonpublic school children in this program the Title I evaluation is quite explicit: "It is run entirely in public schools, for public school children, and uses public school personnel."

The small work-study program was designed to find employment for teenage students in an attempt to hold down the number of school dropouts. According to the evaluation, the pupil "is taught the value of social conformity and is made to see his responsibilities to himself, the school and his employer." The absence of nonpublic school participation is said to be the result of "lack of parental interest."

Nonpublic school children's participation in Title I for the school year 1966-67, in all programs, was as follows:

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*See discussion in Part III, pp. 33-36.

Instructional Activities	Estimated Costs	Number of Children
Art	$ 3,500	135
Business Education	1,500	30
Cultural Enrichment	18,100	230
English-Reading	17,800	135
English-Speech	1,500	30
Mathematics	4,800	100
Music	2,700	60
Physical Education	18,500	750
Natural Science	2,600	60
Service Activities		
Guidance	1,800	65
Total	$71,000	

The participation took place following the regular school day, with the exception of isolated students who traveled to nearby public schools during regular hours.

Planning and Evaluation of Programs in City A

Nonpublic school officials are not part of the on-going planning and evaluation of Title I as is called for in Office of Education guidelines. The head of the Catholic schools in City A has attended only one meeting, held recently to increase nonpublic participation. But he has never contributed information or counsel to the making of decisions regarding the shape of Title I. At the same time, the Catholic school Superintendent has never forcefully urged that his office be included in this process. He has little knowledge of the actual operation of Title I in City A, except to say that his children have not participated to any meaningful extent. The nature of the parochial system is such that his office has little direct influence; heads of teaching orders and individual principals have considerable power. As the public school evaluation report states, "Parochial schools lack an effective central organization capable of dealing with their own school system."

There is one person in the City A Diocese office who oversees federal programs and attempts to secure federal money for various Catholic-sponsored activities eligible for support. But this man is not a member of the Catholic school staff. Consequently, the Superintendent does not have any real picture of present Title I programs or of attempts of individual Catholic schools to have their disadvantaged pupils participate in those programs.

Title I project areas in City A were selected by a combination of census tract and public welfare data. Once individual public schools were picked, children in nearby Catholic schools automatically qualified. Of the 53 Catholic elementary schools, 17 were in project areas. While public school officials feel that disadvantaged children attend these Catholic schools in numbers similar to the nearby public school, the Catholic school's head disagrees. Because school boundary lines are not identical to those of public schools and because the composition of his schools is different, he sees some Title I Catholic schools' populations as not being especially disadvantaged. The Superintendent offered rough estimates of the percentage of disadvantaged students in his project area schools as follows:

School	Number of Students	Percentage Estimated Disadvantaged
School 1	659	25
School 2	1,044	25
School 3	552	25
School 4	1,031	25
School 5	617	25
School 6	531	25
School 7	355	35
School 8	493	50
School 9	417	50
School 10	269	50
School 11	282	50
School 12	803	50
School 13	641	65
School 14	268	65
School 15	249	80
School 16	234	80
School 17	216	80

The U.S. Office of Education suggests that it may be necessary, in deciding which areas are eligible, to look at the number of children from low income families actually enrolled in the school involved. This would appear to be an appropriate suggestion for City A nonpublic schools.

Discussion

Few nonpublic school children join in public school programs during the day; for the most part they participate only in after-school and summer programs. As seen above, this has lead to small participation. No nonpublic children in grades 1-3 participated in any Title I program in City A during the 1966-67 school year.

On May 1, 1968, both public and nonpublic principals were invited to a meeting called by the City A School Superintendent in an attempt to increase nonpublic participation during the next year. At that time the nature of local Title I programs was explained and individual public school principals were urged to meet with their private school counterparts to see if some Title I service could be shared. It was decided that after-school programs would continue to be offered, and field trips shared, but it was felt that most special personnel would have a full schedule at the public schools and would be unable to provide services to nonpublic children. The provision of services to nonpublic school children apparently will be on a school-by-school basis with no overall plan for their involvement and with no distinction drawn between the schools with 25 percent disadvantaged and those with 80 percent. Nor have nonpublic officials had a share in the formulation of the program; the above mentioned meeting was held to tell them about it.

The Catholic parochial schools must share the responsibility for participation among their truly disadvantaged pupils. Because of the decentralized nature of their school system there is no person whose job it is to assess the extent of Title I participation. The Catholic Superintendent complains that his students receive casual and unstructured exposure to Title I programs; at the same time, his office has done little to change the situation. "Someone else watches" federal programs, so no one in the Catholic school office does.

In conclusion, the City A situation is complex. There are disadvantaged Catholic pupils, but the percentage of disadvantaged children in nonpublic schools is not always as great as in nearby public schools in project areas. Ironically, this is a fact which Catholic officials state and give percentages to support but which public officials deny. Obviously, the eligibility of nonpublic school children for Title I programs sometimes has not been precisely assessed; hence unequal participation in Title I by public and nonpublic school children in the same neighborhood does not automatically prove unequal justice. But even where nonpublic schools, by every account, have numbers of disadvantaged children equal to or greater than those in nearby public schools, and the children in the school are officially designated eligible for Title I support, there is clearly not corresponding participation, and there does not seem to be any particular effort made to see that there is.

Most City A Title I money is used for teacher salaries. According to City A officials, this has the effect of reducing class size (teacher-pupil ratio) from 26-1 to 22-1 in project area schools. Such an expenditure is neither innovative nor imaginative -- criteria this Council has always urged -- nor is such routine use of Title I funds encouraged by federal guidelines. Disadvantaged Catholic school children do not share in this aid, except as a few of them attend some after-school programs.

In City A, then, there is no joint planning or evaluation. Little is done by public officials to find out if nonpublic children really deserve such aid in the first place. Overall, little is done to identify needy children wherever they are, and to design programs to assist them. Little effort is made by nonpublic officials to work for a change in the situation. In short, neither body of school officials appears to be especially concerned with asking if Title I money should be given to disadvantaged nonpublic school children in any discerning, systematic fashion.

City B

Community B is a city of approximately 3,000,000 persons located in the center of the country. There are a total of 800,000 school children in city B; 550,000 attend public schools (69%) and 250,000 attend nonpublic schools (31%). Title I expenditures for this city have been:

1966-67	School year	$21,901,000
1967	Summer	3,264,000
1967-68	School year	17,713,000
1968	Summer	4,337,000

The Title I programs in this city have been divided into two general areas, those designed to provide a "saturation of regular services" and those additional programs which take place during an extended day and week. In the latter after-school and Saturday programs, 60,000 children participate: 58,500 public school children (97.5%) and 1,500 nonpublic school children (2.5%). City B school officials do not tabulate the specific number of nonpublic school children participating in saturation programs. Descriptions of the thirty separate saturation programs reveal the participation to be low or nonexistent; most do not mention private school children at all.

It is recorded that 15,000 nonpublic school children in City B participated in some Title I undertaking during the school year 1966-67. Examination of program evaluations, however, shows that mobile units account for most of this figure. Many of these children saw motion pictures, attended cultural events, or went on field trips. Few received remedial assistance of any substantial nature.

Planning and Evaluation in City B

Private school officials are not directly involved in the planning of local Title I programs; these are presented to private school officials after they have been formulated. For example, communication between the Catholic and public school systems takes place by written correspondence and formally requested meetings; there is no sense of common problems or of mutual interest.

The Catholic school officials do not accept the public school Title I figures and have conducted their own surveys to check enrollment figures. These private studies question the accuracy of the public school reports and are highly critical of the public estimate that $3,000,000 are spent on nonpublic school children. There is, in short, a complete breakdown in communications between the two systems.

Public school officials admit that nonpublic school participation is low but point to a state law which forbids publicly financed programs on private school grounds. Overcrowding in public schools and unwillingness on the part of Catholic principals are offered as the reasons why so few Catholic children travel to public schools for shared-time programs. Public officials also admit to being remiss in urging such efforts. They see that 20 percent of City B's project area children are enrolled in private schools, but point to the many problems involved in opening Title I to these children.

While complaining about this problem and questioning the public school figures, Catholic school officials admit that the internal organization of their school system makes cooperation and dealing with city officials more difficult. Individual Catholic principals and the heads of teaching orders have the power to decide Title I arrangements involving their children. No single official can accurately be said to speak for the Catholic system. In addition, the Cardinal in the area has been reluctant to urge principals to cooperate with the Catholic schools' office, or to urge greater participation for Catholic children in Title I programs. Under these circumstances it is difficult for the Catholic school officials to deal meaningfully with public Title I officials.

Discussion

The investigation of nonpublic school children's involvement in Title I programs in City B revealed that Catholic school officials are justified in complaining about poor participation. Public school officials are careless in presenting accurate figures for individual programs, especially for those transpiring during the school day. Aggregate data showing 15,000 private school participants is misleading, insofar as this participation seems to center around such undertakings as filmmobiles rather than remedial or guidance services. Public school estimates on the sum of money allocated to programs for nonpublic school children seem high. State law would appear to be used as an excuse, rather than being a real barrier to full participation by disadvantaged nonpublic school children.

Communications between the two systems seem to have broken down. True cooperation and a common sense of mission are lacking. In part this problem is exacerbated by the splintered nature of the Catholic school system in City B.

Catholic schoolmen cannot speak for all the Catholic schools in the city. At the same time, however, public officials have not sought to involve Catholic officials in any systematic planning or evaluation. The result is that disadvantaged nonpublic school children participate only in scattered programs and in proportions which seem well below their actual number.

City C

City C is a heavily industrialized city of 200,000 persons located in the East. Figures provided by the public school system show that there are 34,000 children in the city, 24,000 enrolled in public schools (71%) and 10,000 in nonpublic schools (29%). There are 12,000 children in Title I project areas, 10,000 in public schools (83%) and 2,000 in Catholic schools (17%).

Catholic high schools in City C provide mostly college preparatory curricula; few disadvantaged pupils move from parochial elementary to parochial high schools. The 2,000 disadvantaged Catholic students, then, attend elementary schools. There are no other private schools in the city whose children are eligible for Title I funds.

Title I expenditures for City C have been as follow:

School year, 1966-67	$526,000
Summer, 1967	294,000
School year, 1967-68	751,000
Summer, 1968	142,000

Programs for the year 1966-67, reported in City C Title I evaluations, were as follows:

Program	Number public school participants	Number nonpublic school participants	Evaluation Comments on nonpublic participation*
Mobile Art	9,616	1,509	"Services identical"
Nutrition Education	8,862	0	"Services offered"
After School Tutorial	289	2	"Services made available"
Library Books	10,299	1,870	"Consultative services"
Desegregated Quality Education	375	0	"None" from nonpublic schools
Saturday Creative Art Workshop	583	41	"Invited to participate and pertinent information sent"

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*From City C Title I evaluation reports.

In the year 1967-68 (program evaluations for which were not ready at the time of this study), $400,000 of the approximately $900,000 have been spent on the training and employment of 100 paraprofessional aides, none of whom serve in nonpublic schools. A year-round program for 400 preschool children, modeled on Head Start, consumes another large share of City C's Title I money -- $236,400. How many of these students ultimately attend nonpublic schools is not recorded.

Planning and Evaluation of Programs in City C

Nonpublic school officials do not play an active role in the on-going planning and evaluation of Title I programs. In 1966, at the time that initial grants were made under PL89-10, the Catholic school superintendent participated in the planning process and was a member of the committee which prepared the city's first Title I proposals. Since that time, according to the city's Title I director, "Programs have been largely unchanged and there has been no need for further meetings." Evaluation is done by the director and the project evaluator. Nonpublic school officials have never been participants in this process and are not now involved in the evaluation of current programs. Programs are presented to nonpublic officials as *faits accompli*.

Project areas have been selected by the public school's office of compensatory education utilizing a combination of census tract data and AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children) information. Fifteen of the 36 public schools and nine of the 19 Catholic schools fall within the area derived from this method. Children in four of the Catholic schools were then chosen by the office to join *all* of the public schools as recipients of aid.

Discussion

Nonpublic school officials privately complain about the lack of participation in Title I. As indicated in the above list of specific programs, nonpublic children participate in Title I programs through the services of an artmobile and through "consultative" library assistance. But participation in the intensive tutorial and desegregated education programs was negligible. Such services are apparently "offered," but no effort is made to enroll nonpublic school students. In the mobile art program, where "services are identical," 9,500 (86%) public and 1,500 (14%) nonpublic children participate. No other program provides this degree of participation and in the other programs it is clear that services are not "identical." Disadvantaged children in the Catholic system are not receiving aid proportional to their numbers.

Nine Catholic schools are located in the Title I project area and, according to public officials, students attending these schools are drawn from the neighborhoods where the schools are located. While, typically, some "discipline problems" are sent from Catholic to public schools, project school parochial students appear as disadvantaged as those in nearby public schools, according to the criteria used in City C for selecting such areas. There would appear to be no rationale for the exclusion of children in certain Catholic schools in the designated project area from full participation.

No available evidence suggests that nonpublic school participation will increase in the year 1968-69. Programs now under evaluation show that the provision of paraprofessional aides constitutes the largest single item in the current program. None of these aides serve in nonpublic schools.

Catholic officials have been reluctant to voice complaints about the current dispersion of Title I funds for fear of "jeopardizing cordial relations." A state program has been inaugurated and operates as a "Little Title I" administered locally by those in charge of the federal program. It provides City C with $700,000 of which $81,000 (11%) go to children in Catholic schools for an intensive remedial reading program. The percentage of aid going to children in Catholic schools was derived using criteria similar to that specified in Title I but computed by the state. Though smaller than City C's Title I allocation, the sum designated for aid to disadvantaged parochial students is much more significant under this state program. The Catholic superintendent suggested that once this share was won for children in his schools, and the program was in operation, he would then feel he could push for additional Title I funds.

The office of compensatory education in City C reports that it provides consultative services and that Catholic school teachers and personnel attend training sessions and receive other forms of aid on which it is difficult to place a monetary value. In short, low pupil participation figures, they report, are not an accurate index of aid to Catholic school children. Invitations to participate were sent out to Catholic principals and the Diocese and responses were not alwavs received. In sum, the Catholic school officers were not satisfied and were willing to find fault with public Title I officials privately, but were unwilling to convey these feelings in a more direct fashion. Public officials defend the status quo and offer such considerations as those just mentioned, as substitutes for comparable participation of eligible nonpublic school children in Title I programs. Lengthy interviews with all parties concerned revealed clearly that genuine communication was lacking between the two school systems. Disadvantaged children in City C Catholic ghetto schools are not receiving comparable Title I aid to their public school counterparts, and no steps are being taken to correct this situation.

City D - Pittsburgh*

Pittsburgh is a heavily industrialized city of 650,000 persons. Figures provided by the school system show 122,000 children in the city, 76,000 enrolled in public schools (62%) and 46,000 in nonpublic schools (38%). Of these, 17,500 live in Title I project areas; 13,000 are public school children (74%) and 4,500 are private school children (26%). There are no private schools, other than Catholic schools, in the city with children eligible for Title I funds.

Title I expenditures for City D have been as follows:

1966-67	School year	$2,509,000
1967	Summer	21,000
1967-68	School year	3,163,000
1968	Summer	53,000

A partial listing of programs for the 1966-67 school year are as follows:

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*Pittsburgh is identified in contrast with the preceding case studies, for reasons explained in Part III of the Council's report, on page 34.

Instructional Activity	Number of Public School Participants	Number of Nonpublic School Participants
Art	1459	0
English-Reading	655	563
English-Speech	377	712
English-Second Language	866	481
Music	6258	531
Recreation	118	0
Service Activity		
Guidance-Counseling	2049	1031
Social Work	348	1086

Planning and Evaluation in Pittsburgh

Even before Title I allocations were announced for the first year of the program's operation, public school officials were meeting with Catholic school leaders to plan joint programs. The leaders of two systems were not strangers to one another; Pittsburgh has had a long history of shared-time programs. For years parochial school students had traveled to nearby public schools to participate in home economics classes and courses in vocational education. The plan agreed upon for Title I programs was based on a mutual understanding of the needs of disadvantaged children in the two school systems.

Title I project areas were selected on a school-by-school basis in the public system using census and AFDC information. Once an individual public school was selected children in the parochial school in the same neighborhood also qualified, so long as Catholic officials verified the assumption that disadvantaged children attended the school in numbers roughly equivalent to the companion public school. According to public school officials, this system was used because the nonpublic school leaders knew they would be responsible for their decision and would behave accordingly. At the same time, public school officials themselves had more than a passing understanding of the composition of Catholic school populations in Pittsburgh.

Once the project areas were agreed upon, programs were established with services provided equally to the children in the paired public and parochial schools. Approximately 30 percent of the disadvantaged students in Pittsburgh were enrolled in parochial schools and about 30 percent of the Title I funds were expended on these students. In practical terms this has meant that some remedial teachers spend part of their day in the nonpublic school and part in the public school. Few programs mix students from the two systems.

In the Communication Skills program, for example, where intensive reading preparation is given, half of the teachers spend half of their time in parochial schools. Thus 25 percent of the total program takes place with nonpublic children. This program is concentrated in 11 public schools, but provides services to children in 30 Catholic schools. In other words, 75 percent of the teachers and equipment are located in a few public schools while 25 percent serve children in numerous parochial schools. This arrangement was pressed by Catholic school officials; those public officials in charge of the program feel that students benefit most from a concentration of services. The U.S. Office of Education, in its guidelines, is explicit in urging such concentration.

Certain programs, as seen in the listing above, serve only students in public schools, while others serve both in varying proportions. Funds for reducing class size, for example, are not expended for children in parochial schools. Some substitution takes place, however, so that more than 30 percent of the participants in some programs are nonpublic school children.

According to both Catholic and public schoolmen, evaluation is an ongoing process. The deputy superintendent of the Diocese schools and the associate director of compensatory education for the Pittsburgh school system, call one another whenever necessary to discuss Title I programs. Decisions on the retention or expansion for the various components of Title I are discussed at regular joint meetings, occasionally with the public school superintendent in attendance. In one example of what transpires at such gatherings, it was recently proposed by the public school administration that a program involving mobile speech clinics be ended. Parochial officials saw this as undesirable for their children since it would have ended speech therapy in their schools. A compromise finally was reached where one laboratory would be kept to serve nonpublic pupils.

In part, this joint evaluation is encouraged by a State Department of Education regulation requiring the signature of nonpublic officials on the state evaluation form. This is to insure that consultation with private school leaders has, in fact, taken place. This is a recent regulation, however, and active cooperation was commonplace in Pittsburgh before its enactment.

Current planning in Pittsburgh includes the establishment of a position within the public school's office of compensatory education to represent the nonpublic schools on a half-time basis. Such a liaison would assist in planning and evaluation and would assure full participation wherever possible. Funds do not presently provide for such an individual, however, and it appears that this plan will not be activated in the immediate future because of the curtailment of Title I funds.

Discussion

Both public and nonpublic school officials take pride in the harmonious relationship between the two systems. A long history of such cooperation is present, enhanced by a state constitution which has long permitted shared-time programs. Title I is being administered in keeping with this spirit to the satisfaction of all the participants involved.

Programs in the 1967-68 school year, for which evaluations are not ready at the time of this writing, showed that nonpublic participation was occurring at approximately 30 percent, though probably at a slightly reduced level (one estimate was 27.3% total allocation). Individual program descriptions for 1967-68 demonstrated that disadvantaged nonpublic school children have been considered in the planning of each Title I program.

There is less inter-mingling of public and nonpublic school children students in Title I programs than might be considered desirable by some observers, including some of the original sponsors of Title I legislation. In part this is the result of the convenience and the economy in shifting teaching personnel from school to school, rather than students. Distance is sometimes a factor, as walking is not always possible. Also, there are a number of problems associated with moving a large body of students through crowded urban neighborhoods. Such an effort, however, would lead to a sharing of programs between Pittsburgh public schools, many with large nonwhite populations, and Catholic schools, which tend to be filled with mostly white students.

The nature of the Catholic school organization fosters cooperation. The Catholic Schools Office is highly centralized and has full support of the Bishop of Pittsburgh. The Schools Office has authority to speak for all parochial schools in the City and the Diocese. Thus, the public school officials have only one person with whom they must communicate. This is a tremendous advantage and has contributed greatly to the public/nonpublic cooperation. It would be much more difficult to establish such rapport in cities with autonomous Catholic schools.

On the whole, the situation in Pittsburgh seems to follow closely the letter and spirit of Title I with regard to the provision of services to disadvantaged nonpublic school children. Nonpublic school officials contribute to both planning and evaluation. Aid is given to nonpublic school children but the nature of that aid is such that careful control seems to be exercised by the public school officials. At the same time, because participation in program formulation is invited and because of frequent inter-communication, the nonpublic officials are in a position to both assist in, and observe, the operation of Title I. Such a situation would seem to provide a sound basis for informed judgment on the part of public officials with whom responsibility for Title I programs ultimately rests. The real benefactor would seem to be the disadvantaged child in Pittsburgh who is receiving aid regardless of the school he attends, as is the intent of Title I.

"Other Cities"

In conducting the research for this report, it was impossible to visit more than a selected group of cities; however, additional areas of the country did receive extensive attention by other means. Lengthy phone interviews were carried out with individuals in a number of cities and states; evaluation reports from these localities were collected and critically assessed. Journals and newspapers were reviewed. From these several sources it is possible to present preliminary reports on nonpublic school children's participation in other places, with some confidence as to their balance and accuracy. These reports are intended to provide the outlines of nonpublic participation in these areas without viewing the operation of specific programs. To complete the picture, on-site interviews should be conducted to fill in additional details.

New York City

The enormity of the educational systems in New York can be seen in viewing enrollment figures -- 1,500,000 school children, of which 1,100,000 are enrolled in public schools (73%) and 400,000 enrolled in private schools (27%). Of these 1,500,000 children, 450,000 come from low income families. New York Title I expenditures were as follows:

1966-67	School year	$56,668,000
1967	Summer	12,832,000
1967-68		61,914,000
1968	Summer	9,600,000

Principal areas in which nonpublic participation occurred in the 1966-67 school year were as follows:

Instructional Activity	Estimated Cost	Number of Participating Children Nonpublic at Public School	 Nonpublic at Nonpublic School
Art	$ 300,000	7,192	
Corrective Reading	859,356	21,249*	11,742
Corrective Mathematics	673,660	7,166*	7,076
Music	407,000	6,567	
Physical Education - Recreation	357,977	9,956	
Service Activity			
Guidance-Counseling	3,102,801	5,492	1,690
Speech Therapy	225,000		5,603
Transportation	190,000		50,000
Other			
TOTAL			

*indicates after-school program

As an aid in evaluating these programs it is fortunate that the Center for Urban Education has undertaken extensive studies of various aspects of nonpublic participation for the New York City School Board. While not having precisely the same concern as this study, these evaluations nevertheless are helpful in providing some insights into New York City programs. For example, the Center reports that the in-school guidance program served children in 149 nonpublic schools, mostly religious schools. Problems were encountered in establishing this program, as various education philosophies were present in the public and nonpublic system; but the report notes:

> Almost without exception, however, solutions to the problems were mutually explored with a minimum of resentment, annoyance, or rancor, and the work of implementing the program and providing effective services to disadvantaged children went forward. ("Inschool Guidance for Disadvantaged Pupils in Nonpublic Schools" by Dorothy D. Sebald, September, 1967, Center for Urban Education, p. 14.)

Additional reports in this series discuss further individual programs in New York and the extent of cooperation between systems as reported by the participants in each. Since each program in New York is the equivalent of most cities' entire Title I allocation, this method of evaluation appears to be a necessary approach. Each program gives rise to its own unique administrative headaches and these can be understood by viewing each separately. Lengthier Center publications, as well as A History and Description of ESEA Title I in New York City, 1965-1968 by Barbara R. Heller, and annual evaluations, also contain competent, professional summaries of New York Title I activities and nonpublic participation.

A number of questions are not answered in such evaluations, however. We cannot assess the extent of cooperation in the planning of the total Title I program; we only get glimpses of such relationships in actual operating programs. We cannot tell whether proportionate numbers of disadvantaged public and nonpublic children are receiving aid; there are waiting lists for Title I programs in New York. We also have no knowledge of the day-to-day public-nonpublic school relationship; for example, it is not explained who the head of a private school might contact to discuss the operation of Title I.

There are a number of other indications as to the problems associated with nonpublic school children's participation in New York. There are active and vocal educational interest groups in the city which have made statements on the subject; also, the heads of religious school systems are not reluctant to voice their opinions. Finally, there are a number of organizations concerned with a wide range of civil liberties issues which became involved in the issue when the use of federal money for private school children was discussed. In short, the magnitude of New York's educational system and the size of its Title I allocation both serve to create strong feelings as to the way the program should and should not be administered.

Programs which take place in private schools have been assailed by educational interest groups. The first Title I proposals for the 1966-67 school year were attacked by the United Parents Association as containing,"Guidance, remedial math and reading, library and speech service in an abundance unknown in our public schools." (Statement by Mrs. Florence Flast, President, U.P.A., to the New York City Board of Education, August 17, 1966). The actual Title I program for children in New York's private schools was modified, following this attack; programs in these areas were cut back.

Other "in-school" programs have also encountered criticism. The U.P.A. criticized the guidance program established in nonpublic schools, arguing that there were not enough counselors in New York to serve both systems. The Public Education Association supported this stand, adding that such counseling would not be "therapeutic," and therefore could not be offered to children in nonpublic schools under Title I guidelines. The Citizens Committee for Children stated, ". . . We see no reason for financing in-school guidance programs with Title I funds. It is, of course, rather improbable that these guidance positions could be filled in any case." (Statement by Mrs. Trude Lash, Executive Director of the Citizens 'Committee for Children,' to the New York City Board of Education, August 17, 1966.)

Title I funds are provided for children in a number of religious systems; Catholic, Episcopal, and Hebrew children all share in programs. This is possible in spite of New York's restrictive state constitution, and that document's "Blaine Amendment," which prohibits aid to nonpublic schools, due to an interpretation by the State Attorney General that Title I funds could be used for children in nonpublic schools if the programs were fully supported by federal funds and the funds were administered in separate accounts. There can be no joining of these monies with state and local funds. In practical terms this has meant that dual-enrollment programs have been impossible to establish, hence the argument on "in-school" programs just outlined above. After-school programs provide the only mingling of students in New York, and these are difficult in crowded urban areas. It can also be expected that the existing arrangements will be challenged in further court tests directed by the Civil Liberties Union and the United Parents Association.

The heads of the religious school systems in New York complain that they have not been consulted in the establishment of Title I programs, that aid to their children is decreasing, and that the decentralization of the city's schools will still further jeopardize programs. For example, Dr. Joseph Kaminetsky, Director of Hebrew Day Schools, describes consultation on Title I as follows:

A standing Committee consisting of public and private school officials which was ostensibly established for the purpose of consultation quickly degenerated into a forum where private school officials were allowed to air their demands in the presence of an assistant superintendent while the Board of Education retained ultimate authority to make arbitrary decisions according to its own caprice.

Some Hebrew Schools face special problems because of their size. In many Title I programs, 200 students are considered necessary before a remedial teacher can spend one-half day at the private school. Many Hebrew schools whose students qualify for Title I assistance are not that large, however. An additional problem is present since these schools dismiss pupils from 4:30 to 6:00 p.m., past the closing hour of after-school programs at nearby public schools.

In discussing after-school programs held at public schools, Monsignor James Feeney, Associate Superintendent of Schools for the Archdiocese of New York, is generally unenthusiastic. He sees a reluctance on the part of some Catholic parents to send their children to a public school, which is seen as undisciplined and unruly. At the same time, he feels that some public school principals have discouraged attendance of nonpublic school students. Additional problems also occur when children must return home from these programs late in the afternoon, occasionally through unsafe neighborhoods.

New York, then, has a number of major issues surrounding the operation of its Title I program. Active educational and civil liberties groups are fearful of nonpublic Title I arrangements; private school officials are disappointed at the low level of participation and perceive poor responsiveness on the part of public officials.

New York's Title I program, by any standard, is huge. A single part of the program is equal to most cities' entire Title I allocation. This brief look at New York has outlined some problems, pointed to some issues. A complete and thorough analysis is needed to answer the questions which this brief overview has raised. Given the size of New York's program and the complexities of its educational system, such a further study -- whether conducted under the auspices of the Office of Education, an appropriate committee of Congress, or this Council -- might be useful. Such an investigation would not only provide answers to the particular questions outlined above, and indicate the extent to which this giant system has unique problems; it might also help illuminate the general question of whether the extent and the kind of participation of nonpublic school children in Title I programs should be a matter of national concern.

Washington, D.C.

The District of Columbia school system is characterized by a smaller percentage of nonpublic school children than most of the communities under consideration. Of the 165,000 school children in the District, 145,000 are enrolled in public schools (88%) and 20,000 in nonpublic schools (12%). Of the 40,193 children who received some Title I aid in the year ending June 1967, 39,453 were public school children (98.2% of the total) and 740 (1.8%) were enrolled in nonpublic schools. Both public and private administrators agree that participation of nonpublic children "isn't what it might be." These figures, then, reflect a lack of participation by qualified, disadvantaged nonpublic school children.

District Title I expenditures are considerable -- $5,389,000 for the year ending in June 1967. A very thorough evaluation of these programs was undertaken by the George Washington University Education Research Project, attempting to discover which programs had demonstrated the "best payoff" through the use of test scores and other methods. Participation by nonpublic school children is not discussed as a separate entity. The report does show that 4,518 nonpublic school children were enrolled in schools located in Title I project areas, though only 740 ultimately received some Title I assistance. Of the 50,878 in public Title I schools, 39,453 received aid.

Planning for the current year shows a desirable concentration of Title I services, from children in 95 schools affected last year to children in 34 schools this year. Of the 34 schools, 5 will be Catholic. This shows a slightly increased nonpublic school participation, though public school officials concede that there is justification for continued dissatisfaction on the part of parochial school administrators.

Of particular interest to this Council is the method in which the schools which will participate in the 1969 program were selected. District school officials first calculated the number of disadvantaged children actually attending each school in the city through the use of public welfare and school records. This information was up-to-date, not depending on the 1960 census. Schools were then ranked according to the number of disadvantaged students in attendance. Private schools and their pupils were treated equally in this process.

The final list, then, was a rank-ordering of all the schools in the District, with the school containing the largest number of disadvantaged students at the top. Of the 34 schools at the top of the list, 5 were Catholic and the children in those schools will receive Title I aid. This is the only city examined which uses the same method for determining public and nonpublic school eligibility. For this reason the operation of the District Title I program is worthy of further examination after the close of the 1968-69 school year.

Bismarck

In Bismarck, North Dakota, a city of 50,000, there is a comparatively small Title I program involving 1,659 public school children and 439 private school children, all enrolled in parochial schools. In the 1966-67 school year the program included remedial reading, directed by a specialist who provided equal services to the children in the two nonpublic and four public schools, a physical education program, music by television, and special education for prevocational students. In the coming year, funds will be utilized for intensive speech therapy for the children in one Catholic and one public school. The educational head of the Bismark diocese is relatively pleased with the nonpublic participation.

The diocesan school head praises the local public school for his school children's involvement in Title I, viewing the State Department of Education as generally hostile to such participation. Local officials, he feels recognize the contribution made by parochial schools. He has been involved in the planning of programs and thinks that parochial school principals are currently participating in evaluation.

The Diocese of Bismarck covers the western third of the state. There are small Catholic schools in scattered towns through this area. There is some participation, depending on the willingness of local public school officials, to open Title I programs to nonpublic school children. In some places, the diocesan school head feels that his principals are overly "bashful" about approaching public school men.

The State Department of Education is also alleged to offer restrictive interpretations of Title I, saying for example, that a "remedial" program in a nonpublic school was meant to be a situation in which no more than one pupil received assistance at a single time. The general approach of the State Department is evidenced in its Annual Evaluation Report which describes the involvement of nonpublic school children: "The public school generally had established priority needs beforehand and the nonpublic school then cooperated as much as they desired in the program as established."

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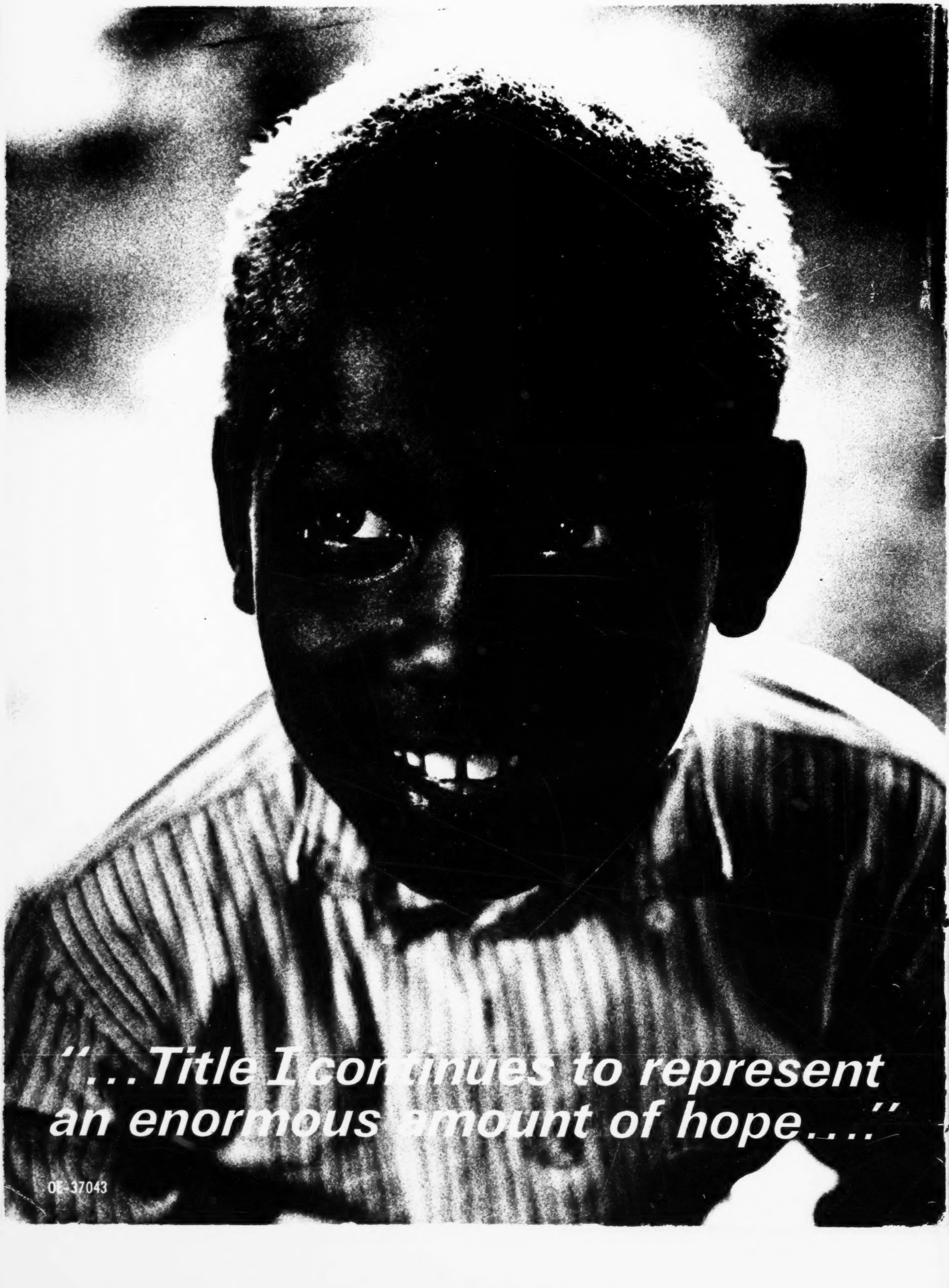

"...Title I continues to represent an enormous amount of hope...."

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